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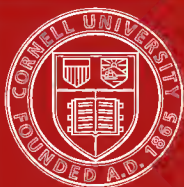
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SPECIAL METHOD IN
LANGUAGE

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SPECIAL METHOD IN LANGUAGE

IN THE EIGHT GRADES

BY

CHARLES A. McMURRY, PH.D. .

New York

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

LONDON: MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.

1905

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Set up and electrotyped. Published June, 1905.

PREFACE

THIS small volume is designed for elementary teachers, and aims to give a broad and simple treatment of the language problem below the high school. Owing to the enrichment of the course of study with literature, nature study, and history, the conditions are now favorable in many schools for the steady growth of accuracy and fulness of expression in the mother tongue.

Language exercises should not stand apart, but should be linked closely to all the other exercises of the school.

Besides the general discussion of aim and method, a complete course of study is laid out and a chapter of illustrative lessons is given.

The last chapter contains also reference lists, for the use of teachers, of verbs, homonyms, abbreviations, rules of spelling, etc. The correction of common errors of speech is also systematically carried out.

This is the seventh volume of the series of Special Methods, the whole series running as follows: Special Method in the Reading of English Classics, in Primary Reading, in Geography, in History, in Elementary Science, in Arithmetic, and in Language.

A further volume on the Manual Arts is in preparation.

CHARLES A. McMURRY.

WINTER PARK, FLORIDA,

May 2, 1905.

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SPECIAL METHOD IN LANGUAGE

CHAPTER I

VALUE AND PURPOSE OF LANGUAGE STUDY

THERE is an important sense in which all studies centre in language. They all contribute to the enrichment and mastery of language, and in turn language study proper strengthens a child's power in every study. There is no other subject which so thoroughly permeates all studies and identifies itself with them as language.

This is seen in the close connection between thought and language. From early infancy words and thoughts are so closely combined in a child's mind that he does not discriminate at first between an object and its name. Thus from the first, words become so intimate with thoughts that throughout life the two are inseparable companions. This omnipresence of language in all studies, in vital relation

to underlying thought, gives it a commanding position in education. Even scientific logic finds in language its forms and its instruments.

“One common fault in our present practice is due to the failure to see that thought and language are twin products, and that we must deal with both in order to deal effectively with either. We speak, for example, of working for a vocabulary, without recognizing that the accumulation of a vocabulary implies growth of thought, the development of cognition. ‘The growth of mind,’ as Professor Laurie says, ‘and the growth of language in the mind go together. There has to be organized in the boy the language of his inner life, so that the language may grow with the life, and the life with the language.’” (Chubb.)

In the history of school courses we find language usurping a supreme place and for centuries holding the headship against all competition, and even at the present time the classic languages have not given up their leadership, and modern languages have gained as much as the ancient tongues have lost.

So far as the common school is concerned the mother-tongue has become the one universal medium of thought and in that sense the foundation of the school course. It has taken more than three cen-

turies of steady progress to bring educators to this point of view, but now the mother-tongue is substantially received by all as the basis of communication for all purposes. This result has brought us to the point where our schools can well afford to make the English language the most polished instrument of culture we have. It is the creation of one of the most vigorous and remarkable races, or mingling of races, in the world's history. Thousands of years of history and the fertile minds of generations of master thinkers and writers have shaped it, and loaded it with varied significance. There is a deep sense in which our language is the achievement of the race, and as a child appropriates it and reaches back into its meanings he is digging into an inexhaustible treasure whose veins grow richer as he deepens them.

The significant place of language in education is suggested by the fact that a man's speech betrayeth him. The language which a man uses during five minutes of conversation will open a deep insight into his whole history and bringing up. His family, school, and life associations are blazoned in his speech, though he may be making no effort to betray them, yea, even though he try to conceal them.

There is probably no means by which an experienced person can so quickly take the measure of a man as by his language. All the elements of education have combined in this to give a sum-total which, as a gauge of character, is near the truth.

It is also noteworthy that it is on the ground of our common English speech that we cherish the hope of unifying into one people the diverse populations that have come to the United States from all parts of Europe and of the world. The primary schools in cities with many foreign populations are working directly at this problem, and in spite of difficulties, the assimilation of varied races to our American ideals and standards is remarkable. When we consider that it concerns not merely the forms of language, but the ideas that lie so deeply embedded in our English speech, and that the whole of English literature and history and the best part of the world's thought lie in the background, reënforcing the forms of speech, we may attribute to our mother-tongue great power to unify and consolidate our divergent races into one people.

The aim of language study in our schools can be stated with transparent simplicity and clearness. It is to make every child a master of good English for

common uses. It is strictly utilitarian and in the same breath points toward the highest idealism, for to attain excellence in the use of the English language according to one's needs reaches through every stage from the power to ask for a piece of bread and butter to the creation of a Hamlet or of an oration of Webster. Our language has a breadth and flexibility that fit it alike to a little child or to a poetic genius. There need be not the slightest uncertainty as to the fundamental purpose in teaching the English language. Make the English language a first-class instrument of thought communication according to each child's ability. This suits every child, and it suits all the other requirements of education.

We might, however, say a word about discipline as that has long been a chief item in the creed. Is the study of English sufficiently rigorous to provide first-class discipline? Two statements are commonly made about our language work in schools. (1) Language exercises are easy and feebly disciplinary. (2) The results of our language lessons are miserably poor. Boys and girls on getting through the grammar school cannot write a good letter, cannot spell, cannot express themselves effectively. This, in spite of the fact that we have spent as much time and drill upon

language as upon other studies. These two statements are contradictory: one that language is too easy, the other that it has been impossible to get good results, too difficult.

Our conclusion is that we have had a hard problem, and teachers have not been skilful enough to solve it, to get children to work hard enough to gain a simple mastery of English.

We may say candidly that it is very difficult to bring a child to a ready use of good English in all his lessons. It may be simple and tedious and easy to teach him all the trivial items in a language book, but to get him to use good English on all occasions where good English is wanted, this is no small matter; indeed, it is a first-class problem, and one we can apply all our skill to solve.

Having a clear and unmistakable aim in view and knowing that the result to be achieved is difficult, we have merely to make a careful choice of the means to be used, and persistently and skilfully employ them for the accomplishment of the result. In this way we shall get all the discipline we can well require.

The mastery of the English language is the mastery of a fine art. To gain this in any art is usually regarded as difficult, and language is one that

involves the greatest complications. It can rise to meet the height of any capacity.

To acquire an art is more difficult than to acquire knowledge, because the former involves the use or application of knowledge. It is proverbial that the application of knowledge is far more difficult than its mere acquisition. Language, of all studies, is long and strong on the side of application. It never halts. It is absolutely persistent. One must become either a master of speech or a bungler. Some studies, like grammar or geometry, may be chiefly theoretic, but language is for use, and for use in constantly new and varying situations. At every step, in every study, there must be a mental alertness and tension to get correct utterance adequate to the thought. This gives a practical turn to language work that is unequalled among studies. All the accumulations that a child has gathered before, from many sources, are more or less in constant requisition. The skill gained in other studies may be lost and the facts forgotten without revealing immediate damage, as in history or geography, but power and efficiency in speech depend upon one's ability to retain and to use what he has previously gained. Among things having disciplinary value,

this is chiefest; namely, the study that ever and inexorably demands mental alertness in using previous knowledge, and that, too, in the necessary and continuous relations of daily life.

In conclusion we may notice that language is peculiarly the instrument of the teacher. Masterly use of it should be one of his distinguishing characteristics, while the constant and varied employment of it, to test and exercise the children, make it his main reliance. As education has broadened into new regions, other tests and modes of expression have come into use, but language still holds, and always will, the first place.

There has been in recent years a combination of circumstances which now places language study clearly before us in its proper aim and function. The old classical languages, once so dominant, have dropped out of sight so far as the common school is concerned. Grammar, once so prized for discipline, has been found wanting so far as the chief language aim is concerned; other studies, as science, literature, and history, have come in to supply that vital content which used to be lacking; language itself is found to be indispensable to all the other studies and to the common uses of life. A whole body of excellent

reënforcements of good habits and good training in language have crowded into our school and are beginning to contribute directly and constantly to richness and elegance of speech.

Even the art sense, the sense of beauty and fitness in speech, and the graces of style are beginning to be felt as moulding influences from the earliest years.

In our better schools there are more and stronger influences at work to secure good language than ever before. These influences also begin earlier and thereby obtain a deeper and stronger hold. The enrichment of our course of study with literature, science, geography, and history provides everywhere for a fuller and richer language. We have therefore the indispensable basis for a most fruitful treatment of language; namely, many and varied fields of copious knowledge, where language must always keep abreast of thought.

CHAPTER II

RELATION OF LANGUAGE TO OTHER STUDIES

THE attainment of the aim proposed above is clearly not the work of any single study, but of all studies and of all school and home life. In our efforts to secure this result we must take a broad view of all contributing studies and make a combination of all favorable language influences. Every lesson in any study that is well taught contributes directly to our aim ; every poor lesson is a lowering of language proficiency. This does not exclude language lessons as a separate study, but it emphasizes the language side of all studies.

It is often said by the critics that the language results in our schools are sadly deficient. So far as this is true it is a criticism of our work in all studies. It implies a general feebleness of work, a low vitality. Language is a somewhat delicate test of the vital quality in all lessons.

Admitting that the results of language work in our schools are not satisfactory, we must seek the

remedy, not alone in a series of language lessons, for the disease is too general to be cured by a local application. It is by strengthening the language phase of all subjects as well as by a more definite and systematic handling of a few special topics in language lessons proper. We may say in general that the positive policy of building up correct habits of speech should be begun as early as possible. The procrastinating policy of rooting out bad habits after they are formed is wasteful of time and disagreeable in the operation.

We can afford to go back as far as possible in a child's life, and to accumulate all available resources and momentum, so as to carry him more surely to eventual proficiency in language.

The great changes that have been going on in our school course have prepared the way for a decided improvement in language. The enrichment of all our earlier grade studies with literature, with story, with nature study, with poetry and song, with games and social exercises, and with occupations, is like the storage of large reservoirs out of which the fountains of speech spring. And speech does spring spontaneously and abundantly out of these sources. Beyond question the deep sources of thought and

language are now far more liberally supplied to children than they were a few years ago. And in schools where these thought-producing materials abound the language results are far better.

If children are still found to be careless and slipshod in speech, it is largely because these new studies are still undeveloped, still in their crude beginnings, and good language work cannot spring out of subjects poorly taught. When literature is well taught in primary grades, with lively reproduction of stories by the children, when songs and poems are memorized, when nature study leads to a constant spirited and sympathetic life and conversation among nature's objects and handiwork, when early history and geography find an equally strong and stimulating oral treatment, we shall find the foundations well laid for proficiency in English.

Improvement, however, in these elementary arts of instruction is slow. The deepest and most difficult problems of education are involved. The newer methods of oral instruction are not only new, they are more difficult than the old, formal ones. They require more knowledge, more spirit, more power and tact in handling both the material and the children.

In discussing the relation of language work to

other studies we observe that there are two chief ways in which they contribute to improvement in language: first by supplying the original quarries out of which language is derived, and second by constantly reënforcing the specific teachings of the language lessons proper, that is, by offering a constant field for applying language lessons. History, geography, literature, and science are constantly supplying new words and sentence forms together with the substance of thought which they express. In increasing knowledge and in constantly widening the horizon of information these studies perpetually work at the building up of the structure of speech, and they have the opportunity of giving correct forms and habits from the start, of not only enriching, but of fittingly expressing the new thought. Here is an opportunity to mould speech and to impress correct and appropriate form such as could not better be devised. Every study has this special advantage in shaping a child's language. It requires thoughtfulness and skill in every lesson to make proper use of this opportunity. It is by controlling these original sources of supply that one has the easiest and most effective means of implanting fit language. Yet it is not without conscious and painstaking care that the

teacher can guard and cherish these early sources of good language.

It is now generally admitted by teachers and writers on language that language lessons proper should derive many of their topics from valuable and outstanding lessons in other studies. The advantage is twofold, strengthening those studies themselves and contributing strongly to language proper. If language lessons elaborate the topics of other studies, they relieve the teacher from the necessity of hunting up and by class instruction preparing special topics for language. It is a double economy. Topics of pronounced value in other studies command respect in language lessons and, if well chosen, are in themselves natural and easy centres of thought. The language difficulties have already been partly overcome; the thought is clear, ideas flock to the child's mind, and he does not sit fumbling his pencil in search of something to write. There should be at hand this accumulation of worthy thought material, and the mind can then be centred upon the special difficulties of expression.

The language lesson has its peculiar difficulties to meet, and it is better to strip away any other unnecessary difficulties so as to let the mind struggle effec-

tively and triumphantly with these knotty points in language.

Nor will there be any monotony or narrowness in using the resources of other studies freely for language purposes. History, nature study, geography, and literature are such broad, deep, and many-sided subjects that great freedom of choice among many attractive topics is offered. Herein we suffer from surplus riches rather than from poverty. All kinds of subjects, all varieties of treatment, as description, narrative, and argument, are given in profusion.

So far as history, science, and other studies are concerned it would be to their decided advantage if more of their topics could be handled in language lessons. But the latter are closely limited. They can only pick out topics here and there. Objection has been raised to the extensive use of these topics supplied by the content studies, on the ground that it does not leave room for originality and spontaneous self-expression. But we believe that it is better in this case to take a middle ground, to avoid hurtful extremes.

Children should find much opportunity and encouragement for original expression in self-chosen topics. But it does not seem safe to make this the

exclusive or even the chief mode of expression. Again, even in subjects selected from history, science, geography, and literature, there can be given great latitude for choice in the mode of treatment, and in the point of view. We are in full sympathy with the idea of freedom and originality in composition. The lack of it is one of the heaviest drags upon language studies.

Great as are the services of the other studies in contributing first-class treasures to language for more careful elaboration, they are equally valuable in their subsequent service in applying the lessons first emphasized by language. The great difficulty is not in teaching what correct usage is, but in bringing about the incorporation of correct forms into daily unconscious habit.

One may do excellent teaching in formal language, bring out clearly and convincingly the correct usages and rules, yet the force of previous bad habit, the perpetual wrong usage in home and on the playground are so influential that the school seems to barely scratch the surface and to leave the roots of old habits undisturbed. The weeds of language are growing as lustily as ever. Their roots have never been disturbed. Language is so deeply embedded in

a child's life, in his habits, feelings, and companionships, that nothing less than a deeper cultivation and a rigorous scientific method will bring a good harvest.

When the language lesson has done its full duty by a clear exposition of the correct usage in adverbs or pronouns, when it has applied the lesson thoroughly by oral and composition exercises, we have merely made the first strong assault upon the breastworks of the enemy. We have not dislodged the hosts of error. They are still in full possession. In other words the war has only begun. Pronouns and adverbs in hostile array are lurking for us in history and geography and literature and in every conceivable hiding-place in the school programme. Driven out of one place they reappear in other places. Defeat they do not know. They even take a pride in their own ugliness, and shame the boys and girls into conformity to a usage that the school abhors. What a feeble resistance mere language lessons can offer to these omnipresent and redoubtable enemies!

Language lessons proper are merely scouts sent out to locate and determine the strength of the enemy. The war itself must be carried on by the great phalanx of studies that marches steadily and with singleness of purpose to the complete capture

of all important positions. The war must be carried on over a large area, spreading out through the whole course of study. In every study and in every lesson there must be a quiet but determined hostility to perversions of speech. The geography teacher, if he is a downright enemy of bad English, is an invaluable ally of the language teacher; the history instructor can do no less valuable service; other special subjects may be equally good champions of a pure mother-tongue.

Indeed, if these are not friends and allies, they are positive enemies. There can be no honorable truce with bad English. All the studies are bound together in one league for the purpose of insuring the purity of the fountain of English, or else there are traitors in the camp, and the house is divided against itself.

The unity, the absolute oneness of education, cannot be better illustrated than by this mutual dependence and brotherly support of all studies in working out an effective control of good English. Some of the primary weaknesses and inconsistencies of educational theory are well exemplified in language.

If the lesson of correct English taught in a language period is not to be carried into full effect in

all studies whenever it may reappear, it might better not be taught at all. Or do we emphasize and insist upon a correct usage of verbs in a language lesson only to neglect and ignore it the next hour in arithmetic? What is this other than self-contradiction and inconsistency taught by the best example? There is nothing in theory or practice that can justify such suicidal teaching as this. The teacher must make his studies support one another or confess fundamental weakness in vital matters. Why should teachers object to this close correlation of studies? Call it by some other name if the term "correlation" is offensive. We must at all events satisfy the indispensable conditions for securing good English.

There is no subject in which the sin of isolating a study so quickly and so lastingly revenges itself as the subject of language. Language is so vitally close to other studies that it feels the heart-beat of them all. If now we are so ruthless as to tear it loose from its proper associates, if we orphanize it from its kindred during the period of childhood and growth, why should we expect it to perform its duties in later years in close relation to all experience?

The suitableness of history, geography, and nature

study to serve as a basis for language lessons is further seen in the somewhat logical and systematic working out of lessons in these branches. A history lesson in intermediate grades is usually worked over into a clear outline of leading topics or points. The outline of these topics is placed upon the board or copied into the outline book. No better basis could be found for a composition, falling easily, according to topics, into paragraphs. These being already familiar to the children from the previous history lesson are ready at hand and in logical connection. The children are free, each in his own way, to mould the thought into sentences, so that there is great variety of construction according to ability and individuality.

This plan also provides that full oral treatment of the lessons precede the written or composition work. This is the natural order. There should be in all the early grades abundant oral treatment and reproduction of tales, ballads, historical stories, myths, and nature descriptions. The thought material is rich and varied, and its attendant language should partake of its copiousness. The children are already in possession of a large fund of oral speech, and it is accumulating. It should be put to this service and caused

to enlarge and complete itself upon the incoming materials. The written work is naturally subsequent to all this oral overflow. And yet it is so natural that under proper conditions the children betake themselves to pencil and paper without urgency or even request. Their interests and activities naturally flow along these lines, and it needs only the gentle supervision of a tactful teacher to give this growth steadiness and connectedness.

This adherence to the outlines of geography, history, and other oral lessons is by no means the whole of language work, even in lower grades, but it is one of the chief means of seizing the most available and interesting thought materials, and of bringing their thought into connected, coherent form. It is likewise the best means of strengthening that brotherhood and mutual helpfulness between studies which is so economical and so conducive to thorough mastery.

This close interrelation between language and all other studies is not exceptional. A like intimate relation is found between reading and other studies, between geography and others, etc. But language is the omnipresent thing in all studies, and the necessity for its immediate and constant use in school and

out of school does not allow delay or carelessness in its treatment.

In the "Method of the Recitation," we have devoted a whole chapter to show the imperative need for applying knowledge even in school studies. Language lessons bear directly and constantly upon immediate needs. In language work we are not simply preparing for the future, we are trying to keep up with the present. "Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof." At present the evil is more than sufficient, and we fall below a reasonably good standard. Of all studies, language and reading teach us the great and invaluable lesson of making immediate use of what we are learning.

We repeat—language, because of its close, vital connection with all other studies and because of its hourly usefulness in every lesson, is the best illustration we have of the underlying unity of all studies and of the complete practical dependence of studies upon one another.

Two important conclusions may be drawn from the foregoing discussion. First, the language teacher must be well posted upon the content and character of the other studies which supply well-developed topics for use in the language lessons. If the

teacher of both subjects is the same person, there need be no difficulty, but with special teachers in the different branches there is danger that they may know little of each other's work. But this difficulty must be overcome if effective language work is to be done.

Second, the teacher in geography, science, reading, or history must know the special purposes of the language teacher, must study closely the plan of campaign laid out for the language class, and must be prepared to reinforce this work, definitely, in many ways.

Without this intelligent, mutual understanding between teachers in different studies, it is hard to see how they can cooperate effectively to attain a result so difficult and requiring such a concentration of forces.

Herein lies the advantage of a well-developed course of study, in which each special teacher can become definitely acquainted with the work in other studies. But in addition to this, by teachers' meetings and by mutual conferences, teachers of the same class require to be continually instructed as to the plans and work of colleagues in other subjects.

CHAPTER III

ECONOMY IN LANGUAGE EXERCISES

IN the crowded condition of our course of study every good means of economizing time and labor should be used.

There are several important ways by which we can avoid wasted effort in language lessons.

1. By fixing a simple fundamental aim and by sticking closely to it we shall save much time for better things. We know in a general way that an indefinite aim means a scattered and incoherent effort. But in language lessons there are just a few things that need to be thoroughly done. A failure to see these few things clearly means much time spent on doing many things that need no attention and the half-doing of the things that are essential. A clearly defined, single aim requires the careful selection of the few means that lead to it and the skilful emphasis of these; for example, special lessons on certain uses of pronouns and irregular verbs.

The course of study in language, which follows

later, is designed to give a careful arrangement to those few essentials that lead to a mastery of common English.

2. The reduction of early bad habits to a minimum is secured by the use of a choice fund of excellent stories for oral work from the first day of school. These stories are not only first class in thought, but are presented in the simplest idiomatic English, often conversational, and abounding in just those terms of expression which are the right substitutes for the common errors of speech. It is quite easy to imagine that children under skilful teaching of this sort would fall into such correct habits (laying aside their own crudities) that language lessons proper would scarcely be needed. For this early story work is not primarily language, but introduction to good literature, and is only incidentally a training in correct speech. It is here that we take time by the forelock and build into the child's mind, early, the correct structure of words, which serves well for the foundation of all that comes later.

This strong cultivation of oral language (through stories from literature, and a little later through oral work in geography, history, and natural science) is the natural preliminary and introduction to reading

and language lessons. Through a rich and varied cultivation of oral speech the mind becomes saturated with right phrases, words, and sentential forms. Unconsciously, strong, vigorous, and correct forms of speech become habitual. When the child has been well equipped with this familiar fund of correct oral speech, he passes over easily to correct written forms. This early fixing of right habits through oral practice is far more economical than the later correction of bad habits when once formed.

The surest method of quickly mastering language is by the unconscious imitation of good examples. A child strongly interested in good stories, poems, biographies, and nature studies assimilates good language with an amazing appetite. The choice and appropriate language of a skilful teacher is almost equally powerful in shaping a child's speech. "Children learn their native tongue by imitation, and imitation continues throughout the school course the chief factor in language work." (Chubb, "The Teaching of English," p. 374.) But all these good things a child appropriates unconsciously while in pursuit of larger game,—the interesting thought or story. This is the very economy of teaching.

3. But in spite of the utmost care, blunders and

bad habits creep into a child's conversation. At this point we can practise strong economy by confining our attention to those few blunders that really need correction. The fact that a list of errors is given in a language book is not a proof that this particular class is making these errors and needs these corrections. Before giving a class a lesson on certain faults find out whether they are common to this class, *i.e.* whether the medicine suits this particular case. It is not very unusual to see a class drilled upon usages for which there is no necessity and which are a bore to them. One experienced teacher said that half the mistakes made by children were committed in the forms of the verb *to be*. By concentration upon the few essential corrections, and by systematic attention and review directed to these, we may teach so effectively that bad habits are really converted into the corresponding good ones. Whatever failure there may be must be made up by systematic attention to correct speech in the other studies.

4. An excellent economy may be practised wherever we can enlist the genuine interest of the children in correct and elegant speech. Children enjoy strong, vigorous, and effective language; they take on a feeling of distaste and dislike for clumsy and

uncouth errors. Popular errors heard out of school they enjoy criticising and overhauling. The curiosities of language, as the meaning of homonyms and antonyms, even the irregularities and freakish things, they like to discover.

The rhythmic and musical phases of language please children from the earliest years. Wherever a real interest can be awakened for language, the work will be done more quickly and effectively. A certain amount of pure drill and drudgery is inevitable, but it should be reduced to a minimum, because this kind of work attains the result with the larger expenditure of friction, labor, and time.

5. We shall attain our desired end in language if we do not demand a too great accuracy and carefulness in many little niceties and excellencies of speech. Children are not perfect, and they will not be till long after we get through with them. Overnicety and punctiliousness defeat the end they seek to gain. "The chief difficulty may be indicated by the word *thoroughness*; to be thorough enough, and thorough with the kind of thoroughness possible in such a matter as language; to avoid pedantic, literal, murderous thoroughness — how difficult that is!

"That would be an absurd thoroughness in draw-

ing which would keep a child drawing circles until it could draw a perfect one. Similarly, it would be a choking pedantry in English work that would confine a child to the practice of certain words or forms of speech until its usage was rigorously perfect. Clearly, thoroughness in an art is a relative thing, — relative to the general powers of the child ; it can only be approximative." (Percival Chubb, "The Teaching of English," p. 365.)

Children must do considerable blundering in order to make progress. A person in learning German, for example, blunders incessantly ; but gradually out of these blunders emerges more accurate speech. The same with a little child in learning English. He gradually overcomes marked defects of speech. We can afford to put up with many faulty and blundering attempts of children if they are thinking hard, trying strenuously, and keeping their minds on the main issues, including language. The main things they must keep constantly in mind. The teacher should overlook nothing, but he should watch his chances for making corrections and bring them in as clandestinely as possible on some occasions and very boldly on others. There is no telling what a teacher should or should not do on occasion, but ordinarily

he should not pester and nag and badger children with little things when big things are at stake. We are simply stating a neglected truism when we say that children are immature, that they do few things with perfection, that they are always on the verge of new and difficult things, and these are proverbially hard; in other words, that the standard of excellence, as fixed by the growing and immature condition of children, is not the standard of adults. In language, as in everything else pertaining to children, we are trying to encourage a healthy growth.

The pedantic schoolmaster will save time and vexation by a kindlier attention to these peculiarities of human nature.

6. Another place for economizing time in language study is in reducing the time given to technical grammar and in eliminating from grammar itself a large share of the nicer classifications and subtle distinctions which gave bulk to the older grammars. Nor do we need much abstract philosophy or introspection to get at the essential classes and laws of language structure.

It has long been acknowledged that these elaborate grammatical technicalities do not much increase efficiency or correctness of speech, and now that the doc-

trine of formal discipline is tottering, and in the minds of many is already cast down, we may take courage to look grammar squarely in the face and ask for deliverance from useless technicality and formality.

7. Exercises in spelling which are here included should be limited to words whose meanings are understood. In the olden day, when there was not much breadth and variety to school work, a large amount of time was devoted to curious and unheard-of words, and to the curiosities and puzzle spellings which added nothing to a child's real intelligence. Now that there are so many vitally important studies waiting for audience with a child, we can well afford to banish the old-time trivialities. The spelling-match may still be of value in arousing interest, and so far as possible rules of spelling should be inductively developed and illustrated and the shortest cut found to the spelling of classes of words.

8. In close connection with language exercises the question of good penmanship must be met. Here again we must find the line of moderation between too painstaking and overcareful writing and the loose carelessness and even slovenliness that are so common. Clear, round, intelligible script, that is correct in general form, and can be easily read, is the

standard. The strict schoolmaster often sets up too high a standard, and this interferes with other more important results. Children's work is necessarily somewhat crude and should not be forced up to any unnatural, pedantic excellence. Gradual betterment and progress are the desired things, so long as the child is working earnestly under the impulse of thought, that must be made clearly intelligible.

These are all important ways of economizing time and effort.

In conclusion we may notice that a close organization and sequence of topics throughout the grades will give simplicity and strength to the whole. Mr. Chubb says: "We must avoid waste in order to get good results; and this we shall do when (1) our programmes are more organic and unified than now, and (2) when the work of each grade is done by the teacher in the light of the course as a whole, and according to the final ends aimed at.

"(1) Our English Course ought to show a definite, organizing policy, animating and articulating the work of each grade; a network of connecting tissue uniting it all.

"(2) The success of such a plan must depend upon the teacher's ability to see the work of her

grade in its organic relation, not only to the work of the grade below and the grade above her own, but as a stage in the progress toward certain final results, and as a contribution to those results."

The same simplicity and unity of language aims must pervade all the studies of the school course.

In the previous chapter on the relation of language to other studies it is plain that only by concerted action in pursuit of the same aims can wasteful repetitions and time squandering be avoided.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD IN LANGUAGE LESSONS

THE personal motive with which both teachers and pupils undertake language lessons has much to do with their ultimate success. Language lessons from one point of view are a sort of formal device for making good the language deficiencies of other studies, where thought is uppermost. Language lessons, therefore, have often been regarded as a routine drill. They are designed to enforce and strengthen certain correct formal usages of speech. These are naturally arbitrary and mechanical and have been considered the legitimate prey of the mechanical teacher. This routine language plunder, collected from all the studies, furnishes out a paradise for the drill teacher. In themselves these exercises have but little interest to children, and they therefore supply the best illustration of strong discipline without motive.

Many excellent teachers have felt that if they

could carefully arrange these drill exercises in connected series through the grades, and could then bring to bear a steady pressure of drill upon them, they could solve the language problem and turn out children possessed of a reasonable mastery of English. We cannot deny that when this policy has been consistently followed, it has achieved a certain degree of success.

Yet in education machine contrivances of this sort never wholly fill the bill, and they are sooner or later condemned as too costly. From a careful paper upon this subject by Professor N. D. Gilbert, I wish to quote the following sentences:—

“Of the making of language books there is no end, but for all that there comes an unremitting cry that the children of our schools do not learn to speak or to write English. These books contain numerous exercises at points where errors most abound. Nevertheless the teaching based upon them seems not to bring about effective results in the language of the children. The reasons for this seem not far to seek. First, good teaching is not a matter of absolute and precise prescriptions. Second, such exercises can be brought into touch with a child’s experience and

enter into the body of his spontaneous thinking only in some more or less forced way; hence his tendency to carry these exercises over and put them into the real things of his life is relatively weak. Third, the ideals of these books are linguistic forms. They induce the corresponding attitude on the part of the teacher. Curiously, perhaps, but inevitably, when we reflect on the scheme, this insistence on forms kills the teaching of forms in any vital way.

"This all must mean that the forms of correct speech are taken on for use only in the course of one's active thinking—thinking into which his personal activity spontaneously and strongly goes."

Mr. Gilbert's conception of language work is thus seen to be in marked contrast to the drill motive which underlies many of our language lessons. In the language books the formal side of language is given a commanding place; he would make these forms merely an outcome and expression of lively experience with interesting thought.

It seems strange and even discouraging that we cannot attack the language problem in this direct, straightforward, and formal method of the language books and thus master it. But language is too

vitally dependent upon a child's whole life activity to be reconstructed by any independent series of mere language drills. The teacher has a much more difficult problem than that of teaching, no matter how well, any prescribed series of mere language lessons. Language is the outer clothing of thought, and when you take away the animating spirit, you have nothing left but a dummy.

"The development of appreciative power is the best of aids in the development of expressional power. In other words, expression is intimately related to impression. The best class in composition is generally the best class in literature. Those can give most and best who have received most and best. Children learn to write as they learn to swim—by watching and imitating others; by trying under the lead of a model. They develop a feeling and instinct and knack for writing, without which they will never be effective as writers. Unless one can develop this craftsman-like pride and interest one labors to small results. The child or youth who writes well is he who feels that he has something to say, wants to say it, and to say it well—to make his point. He naturally falls back, consciously or unconsciously,

upon examples known to him. A workmanlike regard for his tools, a sense of responsibility toward the medium in which he is working, — this is what we want to develop; and this is developed, not by rule and injunction, but by catching the spirit and developing the conscience of the craft through the persistent effort to practise it." (Percival Chubb, "The Teaching of English.")

It is the business of the language teacher to carry over the lively interest, the thought impulse of home life, of the history or geography lesson, or the science excursion into the language period. The language lesson is the completion of thought movement that began in the literature or science lesson.

The teacher as well as the children should be full of the thought engendered by these great studies. Loaded with this kind of freight there will be something to discharge into the channels of language. It is in the shaping of this copious thought material furnished by the other studies, and by the rich experiences of child life that the whole capacity and resourcefulness of the teacher are fully tested. The spirit awakened by these studies should be retained in the language, and yet the emphasis should be placed on the diffi-

culties of expression. To keep up this life connection with fruitful studies in the very act of drilling upon the forms of speech, — this will test alike the teacher's power and the children's capacity to perform a double task.

Language teaching in this sense becomes a many-sided and fruitful field of study and cannot be tied down to exact prescriptions and drills.

One advantage of this binding connection between thought studies and expression is that it gives the child a compelling motive in his language work. The transition from a history lesson to the language treatment of the same topic is natural and legitimate and carries the same weight of interest and seriousness as the original lesson.

This transfer of effort is seen in the use of stories in primary grades, for board illustration and description, also in the employment of American history stories for later compositions in intermediate grades, and in the use of well-chosen topics of grammar-grade history for written papers. It is assumed that such derived topics are a reënforcement of the language lessons on the thought side. Mr. Chubb says, "We communicate knowledge in vain if we do not evoke stable and growing enthusiasms."

Even the more formal language lessons on irregular verbs, pronouns, and homonyms may supply a motive to children in the form of a problem or difficulty in the use of language which their regular lessons have brought clearly into view.

Language itself is not destitute of interest and motive for children when its problems are properly set up before them. The bearings of these problems upon the life interests of children should be kept constantly open by watching for opportunities to fan their zeal for letter-writing, for making rhymes, for working up debates or stories, for copying quotations from favorite authors, in fact for any form of written expression which children from time to time find entertaining. Even the mechanical execution of lessons appeals to the physical activities.

Before taking up the specific work of primary language lessons, a few topics of a more general, comprehensive character, applying more or less to all grades, require discussion. In other studies as well as in language there is necessity for the correction of mistakes in oral speech. There can be no excuse for the neglect of this in any study. A high standard of correct and elegant speech should be maintained in every study. To attain this result

there must be a steady and persistent attention to it. The manner in which corrections are made will differ greatly. In general there should not be an abrupt and interfering way of criticism and of disturbing the child's thought. Most corrections can be made quietly and without serious interruption. The sensitiveness of children also makes it necessary to avoid harsh measures. A teacher can be over punctilious and pedantic and pay too much regard to little things. The main effort should be to secure a strong and vigorous thought movement with a pronounced attention to language. It will not do to pass by all mistakes on the ground that a child cannot think and speak correctly at the same time. That is precisely the thing he must learn to do, and he should carefully practise it in every study. Accuracy of speech will even conduce to precision of thought. Thought and language are concomitant. They should be welded together as closely as possible, and attention to more than one thing at a time is the normal requirement in all studies.

Closely bound up with this is the question of the *degree of excellence*, the standard of perfection in language, which should be maintained. This topic was discussed in a previous chapter (also in the

"Special Method in Manual Training"), but a brief treatment is here added from the class-room standpoint.

As a general rule teachers are careless of speech and put up with too low a standard of excellence. A few, on the other hand, who make a strong point of good language, may set up standards which are too difficult. Language is a subject in which children should steadily increase in proficiency and power. It is with us from first to last and all the time, and it offers the best of all chances for a continuous, unremitting improvement. What is most needed is steady pressure and constant attention. Spasmodic efforts, special language drills, could be largely dispensed with if we were steadily consistent in attending to correct speech in all studies. There are many proofs, however, that the adult standard of excellence cannot be applied to children in the class room. One who watches children at board work or hears them in recitation must soon admit that crude, imperfect efforts should be allowed and even encouraged as the only possible avenues leading up to subsequent better results. If children were capable of immediate perfection, they would not need such long-continued guidance. But they are in the crude,

awkward, developing state, and we cannot even find time to correct all the mistakes they make. We must emphasize special points, chief kinds of error. Their improvement must be gradual and continuous if successful, and at no stage should the adult standpoint be applied to them. Common sense would suggest that a child in a day cannot leap to the result which an adult has taken years to reach. Gradual growth toward perfection in such a complicated art as language expression is the only reasonable standard. Our conclusion is that constant and unremitting care and watchfulness in the kindly correction of chief mistakes is far more effective than a standard of adult perfection rigorously enforced by the drill master.

Written Language in Primary Grades

From observing the teacher, writing on the board in frequent exercises, the children, impelled by the natural desire for imitating and by the impulse for action, turn to the blackboard as naturally as to the games of the playground. Their first efforts to write single words from copies by the teacher are crude and shapeless, but they represent natural and genuine effort.

As the children try to imitate the teacher, so the

teacher should try to imitate the children and accommodate herself to them by writing in a plain, large figure. The full, easy swing of the teacher's arm is just the thing to encourage those large motions which the children can best make, and thus at the start they are switched away from those little, cramped motions that are the bane of children's early work.

Then the teacher moves back and forth promptly among the children at the board, encouraging individuals, and suggesting a change here and there. At times the attention of the whole class is called to the making of a word or letter by the teacher, and they try again.

It is not long before they will attempt short sentences from the story of the "Old Woman and the Pig," or from a nature-study lesson.

The primary teacher knows how to find excellent promise in the crudest efforts. Even when a left-handed boy writes words upside down and from right to left, she may find that the work is "excellent" and deserving of repetition in a modified form. When a boy or girl works carefully with a genuine purpose, the result is excellent, no matter what the critic may think.

The board is a better place for the first efforts at writing because of the large movements it allows, and this kind of work may continue some weeks before resort is had to pencil and paper. The difficult words occurring in reading lessons in first grade may be used for a written spelling lesson at the board. As soon as children have mastered the earliest difficulties of copying and writing, they may copy some of the verse couplets they have memorized.

In their first seat-writing unruled paper should be given them or paper with broad rulings, so as to allow a large, free arm-movement, similar to that at the board.

As far as the conditions of the school permit, the board and seat work in language should be done under the immediate supervision of the teacher, so that rapid improvement can be made. There are not many lessons in which little children can be left wholly to themselves without wasting time and forming bad habits. At any rate, when the teacher is free to watch and guide their efforts, there should be much activity in moving about among the children, encouraging, revising, giving copies, showing how to hold the pen, suggesting

good position, and keeping up spirited and sustained effort.

For seat work, when the teacher is hearing other classes, there may be the copying of poems or prose stories from the readers. The use of capitals, periods, and other forms of punctuation can be thus incidentally practised. They may also make copies of verses or sentences written on the board by the teacher, involving simple abbreviations, question mark, proper names, etc. Even in the first grade it is well to give some stress to the correct use of the forms of the verb *to be* with singular and plural subjects, to the right use of pronouns in common, simple sentences, to the use of *a* and *an*, *there is* and *there are*, and other corrected expressions which are peculiar to the class or the locality. Such corrections can usually be made in an easy manner incidental to oral work and to board and seat exercises, as described above.

In the second grade, after an oral introduction to spirited stories, and after the first hardships of writing have been overcome, the children are able to attack the difficulties of sentence work with much greater confidence and success. Their board work begins to take on more regular and conventional

form. The Robinson Crusoe and Hiawatha stories supply a spirited motive to free picture-and-sentence-making. The large amount of oral conversation and reproduction give ever recurring opportunities to work in the correct phrases which take the place of the crude and erroneous expressions first supplied by the children. Out of this oral work, also, the observant teacher will gather up those few common blunders which need special attention in oral and written language lessons.

In the second grade there is a special chance to see the advantage of the lively oral treatment of stories and the oral discussion and reproduction of nature study and literature lessons as a preliminary drill in apt and correct language. Out of this rich fund of life and language material it is possible for the teacher to arrange a series of appropriate written language drills, and for the time being round out and perfect the child's expression. By cultivating early this free and spontaneous activity with the pencil, crayon, and pen, the habit of writing becomes almost as easy and natural as oral speech, and in later grades written language will not appear so forced and unnatural.

It may seem premature in second grade to intro-

duce the forms of irregular verbs, homonyms, pronouns, and auxiliary verbs (as *may* and *can*), but all these forms appear in the usual oral lessons and are natural. To bring them together in the language lesson and to illustrate their correct use may be simply done. The copying of memorized passages and familiar readings should be continued from first grade through the second. Written exercises, if not made burdensome by too rigid requirements, if the writing is kept large and easy, give physical relief and pleasure to the children. The natural desire to imitate these conventional forms and activities is really strong with the children as may be often seen in the voluntary written efforts of little ones in the home.

Intermediate Grades (Third, Fourth, and Fifth)

It is in these three intermediate grades that much of the most effective work can be done both in oral and written language. We are constantly building up and revising the children's language store. Each year brings on a new and most interesting batch of stories from literature, geography, history, and nature study, with language as the natural channel of thought. Every strong and interesting

lesson is a fountain of speech. It seems as if with proper care we could not help making all children linguists in the mother-tongue. The first thing is to see that they are well grounded in this rich oral speech, in the simple and many-sided pliancy of words. All this wealth of thought and expression lies implicit in the reading, history, science, and geography, and just enough attention should be given to language itself to guide the current of speech into correct channels. All this is presupposed by the language lesson proper. The place for a child first to learn the shaping up of the main forms of sentence structure is not the language lesson, but the great thought studies that precede. The thoughts that must shape themselves into language forms are what create the framework of speech. This is the real moulding room. The language lesson is the place where these rough moulded forms (castings) are filed down and polished, where they are tested and imperfections cast aside, where the fittings and bearings are more carefully adjusted.

In written lessons of third and fourth grade we throw children more and more upon themselves in the construction of sentences. At first they are very

bungling. They run a whole page into one sentence, with growing confusion and irrelevancy. They multiply *ands* and *thens*, and seem to find either no start or else no stopping-place when once started. They indulge in sudden and wonderful transitions within the limits of a single sentence. At this stage the teacher should be very alert and watchful. Before beginning the written work it is well to have an oral statement of the main points with caution and suggestions as to difficult words or ideas. Some of the hard words may be placed on the board and noticed. When the writing is on, children just beginning this kind of work require close supervision, with a proper distribution of encouragement, criticism, and control. Perhaps the whole class is stopped to call attention to common errors in spelling, construction, or meanings. Careless work may require sharp reproof; careful, thoughtful effort, though imperfect, commendation. The teacher steps to the board, and with the attention of the whole class shows how to combine two or three statements into one clear and simple sentence. Some children desire too much help and are constantly asking for a spelling or an explanation. They should receive a stimulus to self-help. Some

are inclined to imitate or copy others, especially at the board. This requires decisive checking. Some are very slow, and others too hasty. A more concentrated effort should be required from both.

Teachers are often at a loss to know what to do with these papers after they are written. The children would be glad never to see them again, and the teacher finds them a burden. And yet an examination of them is really instructive. They reveal unmistakably the thought and language power or weakness of the children. We are not seldom surprised at their poor papers, in view of their previous oral work which seemed good.

A sufficient number of these papers at least should be examined to discover their weak and strong points, the common errors and the means of correction. Beyond this the teacher should economize time and labor and correct as few papers as may be. A great deal of the work of correction can be done in the class while the children are at work. Other papers can be read and discussed before the class. In the case of board work by the class much of it can be examined and revised by the teacher and quicker children during the class recitation. The teacher should use the blackboard freely in revising and in

illustrating correct usage. In later spelling and dictation exercises the revised forms may be drilled upon. It is not well to have corrected papers frequently rewritten, especially if children have made an honest effort to do their best.

The teacher may economize time and inculcate good habits by having all materials in readiness when the lesson begins. At recess, or just before the lesson, see that paper or blank-books, pens, ink, and blotters are in readiness. Have the children distribute and collect the papers, pencils or pens, and other materials promptly. These movements must be carefully planned to be effective.

When working at the board, pupils often spend much of their time in erasing repeatedly what they have written. They are extremely active with chalk and eraser, but little or nothing is accomplished. To check this wasted effort let the erasers be used sparingly or only by permission. Let children obey orders promptly at the board.

In fourth and fifth grades children can use the outline previously worked out in geography, history, science, or manual constructions, as the basis of compositions. The previous careful logical outline of these topics is a standing illustration of the value of

first-class oral work, that is, of abundant and logical thought work, leading up to language lessons proper. In a good outline of a history story each topic is a unit of thought and the basis of a paragraph. In using such outlines it is frequently needful to have an oral statement of the leading idea under each heading so as to freshen thought and interest. Such efforts upon familiar topics should bring forth a prompt and full written response from each child. The members of a class will always differ greatly in the fulness of their treatment, but they should at least promptly concentrate their powers and give a creditable result.

By such devices as the teacher can bring to bear, children should be induced to remember and avoid the classes of error which they have been drilled upon in previous efforts. This can be partly provided for by definite warnings preceding the writing, and partly by close, critical attention to their efforts while in progress.

A language lesson is no time for a teacher to take a needed repose. Few lessons are more difficult to conduct efficiently. Constant alertness and watchfulness to secure the embodiment of previous teachings in each lesson are necessary. If this is not done,

children persist in the same old blunders and careless habits, and little real progress is made. This accounts for the fact that so much of the language work is poor. It is sometimes said that children continue through all the grades repeating much the same blunders. So far as this is true it is a standing testimony to poor teaching, to weakness and inefficiency in instruction.

In third and fourth grades children should begin to write letters, which may be sent to parents or friends. The natural inclination of children of this age to do this at home is proof that it is the fitting time to begin. The date and address, the capitalization and punctuation of a letter supply a happy means of introducing such formal matters. The addressing of letters, care in writing, in keeping margins, in spelling and neatness, can be best taught in connection with something which the children are anxious to do. The excursions, home experiences, picnics, and travel of children also afford good topics for them to work up in letters or compositions.

During the fourth grade quite a variety of important language topics requires careful attention, as the common, irregular verbs, contractions, some of the more frequently used homonyms and synonyms, the

often misused personal pronouns, the spelling of many new words taken from the other studies; the introduction to the smaller dictionary so as to develop self-help in finding meanings and pronunciations. These also need to be worked into the composition exercises at board and seat and applied to all manner of recitation and oral work in the other studies. Steady, consistent attention to these things, without pedantry and without scolding, must prove very fruitful. Each lesson should give emphasis to some special task. The controlling aim may be, for example, the use of capitals, or of certain pronouns as *I* and *me*, or the address and introduction of a letter. It might be the correction of a certain kind of grammatical error, neatness and correctness in spelling and writing, or the form and use of certain abbreviations and marks of punctuation. It is by concentration upon one thing at a time that abundant illustrations can be given. The distribution of attention over many forms of error in a single lesson leaves no decided impression and does not lead to correct usage. In the special emphasis upon one aim, however, former lessons should not be forgotten.

In third and fourth grades also the habit should be

fixed of reviewing, applying, and establishing the correct usages taught in the primary grades. Each instructor should take into view and assume responsibility for all the language work of the preceding grades as well as his own. Language is not a thing to put off and on with the passage from room to room, but a steady growth, a constant building upon earlier foundations. Better still, it is a perpetual revival and reinterpretation of old forms and usages. Eternal vigilance is the sole motto, and the teacher must have a mind broader than the grade work of her own class. There is not only an interrelation of studies, but a successive overlapping and splicing of years, and the larger aims that stretch through the whole of childhood into the years beyond should be present in each teacher.

In the fifth grade, while we carry on the main lines already indicated, the broadening studies bring in a few new topics. Business letters and social forms, bills and receipts, letters and invitations, the paraphrasing of poems and stories, and the correct and incorrect usages of language in the street and market are brought into the language exercises. The children themselves can begin to use the dictionary, and in this connection note the markings of letters,

the abbreviations and punctuation marks used in their books and papers.

The geography, history, arithmetic, and nature study require much use of proper names, abbreviations, pronunciation and accent, and the symbols used in various operations. All these should be thoughtfully incorporated into the language and dictionary work. Every study can contribute to the mastery of these various forms, and that teacher is fortunate who sees clearly that all the studies must work together to produce efficiency.

The motto should be *learn* in one subject and *apply* in all subjects.

In the fourth and fifth grade there may be some development, inductively of rules for capitals, punctuation, and spelling. Where such rules grow out of practice, and express conclusions that clearly spring out of the cases observed, they cannot be called premature.

In the fourth and fifth grades it seems well to make a free and natural use of grammatical terms such as subject, predicate, modifiers, noun, pronoun, adverb, verb, preposition, etc., without definition, that is, without more than ordinary explanation of untechnical words. Definitions themselves are not

such dangerous things, but where regular grammatical definitions are learned, memorized, and recited, teachers seem to settle easily into the conviction that this is the main part of language work. Sometimes it is begun early and continued through all the grades, and glides into a patient and passionless routine, which is supposed to be a good preparation for grammar, but grammar is thus killed before it is born.

Success in the work of intermediate grades depends upon the mastery and steady application of a few requirements, in constantly reviewing and keeping in mind the examples and rules of work previously given. As Mr. Chubb says: "The fundamental principle to be followed is that the mastery of language is a matter of practice—practice animated by interest and enthusiasm, guided by good models and by wise counsel and criticism. Children learn their native tongue by imitation, and imitation continues to be, throughout the school course, the chief factor in language work." ("The Teaching of English," pp. 373, 374.)

Grammar Grades (Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth)

The language lessons in sixth, seventh, and eighth grades will continue the various lines of exercise

common to the earlier years. It has been customary to give a strong grammatical character to the language work of seventh and eighth grades and often of the fifth and sixth. We are disposed to make the grammar subordinate to valuable composition and practical language uses. Our fundamental aim continues undisturbed to dominate the lessons; namely, the ability to use good English. The complete science of grammar is not for children in the grades. Language as a science is the most abstract of school studies. If language is to be reduced to system and science by children, it is an exception to all other studies. Even nature study, with its objective material, does not eventuate in science in the grammar school, and why should language, which is a far more abstract and difficult mode of thought?

Passing over grammar for the present, we will speak first of the continuation of the language lessons.

In the sixth grade we have outlined in the course of study a great variety of exercises in the forms and symbols of oral and written speech, such as the spelling of certain classes of words according to rules, the roots of common words and

derivatives, the forms of business papers, abbreviations, synonyms and homonyms, punctuation, corrections of wrong usage, making of outlines, writing letters and compositions. There is a danger that these exercises will take on a too formal style and lose their connection with thought-producing studies. They should constantly spring out of these richer studies and again find application in them. In none of the grades is there a greater variety of interesting and inspiring thought material than in the sixth. Besides the colonial history, American geography, American and European literature, and type studies in nature, there are general lessons with their lively treatment of current topics, and the biographies of authors whose poems and stories we have studied. The teacher should not fail to reënforce the drill upon forms with these inspiring source materials. It is possible to get up interesting and valuable exercises upon homonyms, or spelling, or punctuation, but every lesson will be strengthened by finding its direct bearings upon some interesting phase of study or experience.

In this grade children should receive definite advice in outlining subjects, in paragraphing according to leading topics, and in simple unity and con-

nectedness in thought. As the children grow older their powers of expression and their comprehension increase, and they should be given tasks which command their full strength and therefore their respect.

In the nature study of this grade children should keep neat and orderly note-books, with careful drawings, sketches, and descriptions. Their reports upon excursions or descriptions of plants and animals should incorporate the good habits and correct forms taught in the language lessons. In history and geography there should be the beginnings of reference studies, and the reports of their readings may furnish good language exercises. This gives genuineness to both history and language.

In the seventh and eighth grades grammar in a simple form is taken up, and the study of the history and development of the English tongue from Saxon times to the present may be treated, as to its chief epochs, in a way to illustrate its forms and deepen the meanings of its root words. In this connection derivations, prefixes and suffixes, synonyms and the diverse meanings, and even spellings, may be better explained. Language studies, even on the formal side, thus find their interesting correlations with

the history of races, with literature and authors, with geography and science.

Even children may begin to appreciate why we study French, and German, and Latin, and perceive the contributions which these languages have made to our mother-tongue.

In the reading of these grades some of the longer and more important masterpieces of our English literature are seriously studied, and in close conjunction with these the biographies of authors are treated. Such studies furnish an excellent basis for interesting reports and compositions.

In the midst of the variety of necessary exercises in grammar grades we should not lose sight of the main aim, the ability to speak and write good English with ease. To attain this end all the previous exercises of the whole course of study should be brought together and focussed in these last two years, so that the correct habits arrived at in all the earlier grades shall be confirmed. Thus, in spite of its wide-branching relations to all studies and experience, the whole course in language is simple, direct, and consistent.

During the final years of the common school, children should acquire the habit of an easy and independent use of larger dictionaries, cyclopædias, and

reference books in science, history, and geography. This involves a mastery of abbreviations and the use of the various appendices and lists at the close of the dictionary. It is possible to waste much time in the unintelligent use of the dictionary, in hunting out meanings that do not fit, in failing to interpret markings, in not applying the rules of spelling and derivation to the brief suggestions in the dictionary. Children in order to learn to help themselves in using dictionaries and reference books need frequent suggestion and positive instruction. It is an economy of time to learn to do these things right. Teaching children to be self-helpful does not mean that they shall learn all these things awkwardly, slowly, and often not at all, for lack of intelligent guidance. It is well, occasionally, to spend a whole recitation period in a well-planned introduction to the mysteries of the dictionary. These things are used more or less in all studies and to get over the early difficulties and to establish the easy habit of using dictionaries and reference maps, cyclopædias, and compendiums, so that a child is all the time teaching himself, revising his spellings and meanings, enlarging and consolidating his knowledge — all this is of the highest importance both for the present and the future. The

unsystematic and neglectful way in which these things are done or overlooked is responsible for much of the wasted or abortive work of children in the schools. This is the place for inducting children into habits of practical self-help.

In the seventh grade the analysis of sentences to determine subject, predicate, and modifiers, and the various sentential forms is an opportunity to inspect carefully this centre of study which we call the *sentence*, and which the children have been using freely in all its forms for years. This furnishes an opportunity to understand many things which have heretofore been taken for granted, as the agreement of subject and predicate, the interchangeableness of words, phrases, and clauses as modifiers, the difference between adverbs and adjectives as modifiers, the use of phrases and sentences as subjects or objects, the peculiarity of pronouns as subjects and objects in sentences, the reasons for punctuation, as marking terminations or transitions in thought, and an insight into the reasons against common, incorrect usages in speech. Syntax and etymology, as worked out in seventh and eighth grades, give a rational explanation of the varied formal usages of language, oral and written, which have been constantly and thoroughly

practised in all the earlier grades. This grammatical study, therefore, if it gathers the fruit of earlier usages, is a means of recalling, organizing, and rationalizing a large part of the strictly formal and conventional work of earlier years. In other words it puts a deeper meaning into familiar usages. This suggests a complete inductive approach through necessary practical exercises to the rules and principles of language.

For many years it was customary to approach grammar through orthography (letters and sounds) and etymology (parts of speech and classes of words); the principles of sentence construction and unity of thought in sentence and paragraph coming last. This was a gradual synthetic movement, beginning with the simplest elements.

We are disposed to believe that a much wiser plan is coming into vogue of beginning with the full sentence as the primary unit of thought, of studying it in its various familiar forms, and of working gradually into an interpretation of the lesser elements of the sentence (clauses, phrases, and words), and finally into the elementary letters and sounds with their classification.

It will be seen that this plan in grammar corre-

sponds almost exactly with the complete change that has been wrought out and applied in learning to read. Good teachers of primary reading no longer begin with the letters and sounds, building these first into syllables and later into words, phrases, and finally into sentences. The sentence is the primary unit of thought, and from this as a starting-point, primary reading constantly analyzes into words and sounds and builds up again into sentences, using in succession all the well-known methods.

In grammar also the sentence is the starting-point and goal. We analyze it into its related parts and ultimate elements. We constantly build it up out of these elements. Upon the sentence as the unit of thought is focussed every lesson. To begin grammar, therefore, with a study of the parts of speech is like beginning reading with a study of elementary sounds. We are too far from the centre of operations, from the true basis of thought and interest. For a long time we are in the deep woods without seeing any outlet into the open.

Now the sentence in all its varied and practical forms is, by long use and habit, perfectly familiar to children. They have long thought in sentences almost as freely as they breathe the atmosphere and

as unconsciously. Most of the incorrect usages, which they have been trying for years to lay aside for better ones, are errors in *sentence construction*, not in the mere *forms of words*. The main things which the children have been trying to take on, to assimilate into habit out of a great variety of rich language experience, are these sentence forms.

Being now familiar with a great fund of sentences and words, and with their use, the chief question is at what point to attack this whole structure of language so as to systematize it, to reveal its principles. Sentences are real units of thought. To study and compare them as wholes and in their parts is to work out a whole system of language or grammar. If children understood only words and knew nothing of sentences, we should be compelled to begin with words. But school children generally express themselves in sentences rather than in single words. The sentence as the expression of a thought is a centre of intelligent interest.

Composition deals with still larger units of thought, as the paragraph and essay, but grammar is the science of the sentence as a whole, and of what belongs thereto.

Applying the inductive method to the sentence as

the primary unit of thought, we naturally work out the chief classes of sentences, then the chief modes of structure and modification within the sentence (syntax), and finally the classification of words and their inflections to meet the demands of sentence combination and structure (etymology). Spelling and phonics give us the ultimate analysis of words, but practical necessities have already made us tolerably familiar with these elements and their classification.

This plan followed out may give us our syntax in the seventh grade and our etymology in the eighth. We have already indicated that grammar in these grades should be limited to the prominent principles of syntax and etymology and should not run to seed in a refined and attenuated grammatical classification. Our chief aim would give us the proper check. A knowledge of the chief principles of grammar can give children an intelligent reason for many correct forms and usages. It is a great advantage, when children are old enough, to have a scientific standard upon which usages may be tested; but there are in grammar, as in other studies, endless exceptions and variations, and it is not the business of the teacher to lose the child in this wilderness.

It is of chief importance to make the main parts of grammar clear, so as to serve as a strong reënforcement of all the previous language work, and to render more efficient those parts of language which the child has found necessary for his uses.

In the seventh and eighth grades, accordingly, there is an opportunity for a critical review, from the standpoint of grammar, of the erroneous expressions which have been the burden of language lessons in all the earlier grades.

The problem of getting good compositions in grammar grades is almost as difficult to solve as that of grammar itself, and should receive as careful attention.

There is, however, so wide a range of interesting subjects, and such as would seem to appeal to children, that the chief difficulties are found in selecting and handling the topics. For composition work it is very desirable to discover topics which make a direct appeal to children by virtue of their interest and value. It is not wholly unusual for children to take pleasure in composing. Expression is natural to them if they have anything of importance and interest to say. The ideal thing, and the most practical thing, is to awaken in children such an interest

and close acquaintance with a subject that they desire to give expression to their thoughts. When the opposite condition prevails and the whole matter is irksome and distasteful, the results cannot be good.

If a child's interest is strongly awakened in any special branch of study or topic, it is well to utilize this preference to get him well started in composing. With children, as with balky or stubborn horses, it is better to let them forget that there is anything about which to be balky or stubborn. A child that enjoys books on history and biography will find that his pen and his thoughts move much easier along that line than in some uncongenial topic. The boy who is building a boat would better give a description of the materials, plans, process, and difficulties of boat-building. Another child would take much quicker to an imaginary elephant-hunt, or to the spring vegetables he was raising in his garden. One boy prefers to write about Cooper's Leather Stocking, another about his laboratory and electrical apparatus. If a child can be got to do some vigorous and effective writing upon any of these, or of scores of other widely different subjects, the bugbear of composition has been laid to rest; the child has discovered that he has interests and powers in this direction.

The school studies are as many-sided in their attractions as the children are different in their tastes and enthusiasms. Child life itself is full of interesting experiences and activities. It only requires a teacher who is awake to these various interests and proclivities of children, and who knows the rich pasturage of the various school studies.

It may seem that this plan allows too much consideration of children's whims and notions and too little of what should be systematically done by all children in a class. But it is worth while to remove the cause of offence, to get at the reason for this deep-seated and almost universal aversion of boys and girls for compositions. Are the children at fault or the teachers? Certain it is that teachers are sometimes blindly ignorant and unconscious of the fact that children are composing freely and enthusiastically in subjects of their liking. It is important that we should strike out frequently from the beaten track and give children great freedom in choice and treatment, if we can once set their energies in motion and make them at home in this field of effort.

Composition should be self-expression just as manual training, drawing, and music are.

Much of the other language work is necessarily formal and prescribed for all alike; why not give children greater freedom and license in composition? Why not at least turn them loose into self-chosen pastures? In fact composition in its very nature demands freedom and originality. It does not thrive in a cage. Fed on select books and authors, stimulated by the example of strong, favorite writers, children having any impulses in a special study, or in love of reading, or in any active work, should let these impulses move them to expression. To guide these efforts wisely will give the teacher plenty to do.

There are various ways in which the teacher may strengthen and guide these enterprising, self-impelled writers. History and biography, for example, interest many children. But they do not know how to select topics. Striking problems and characters are all the while coming to light in history. Were the Tories unjustly treated by the Americans at the close of the Revolution? Was it the people or a few like Washington, Greene, Morris, and Franklin who brought the war to a successful end? Was it a wise thing to adopt the slavery compromise in 1787 as a part of the Constitution? Why was civil service

reform so long and bitterly opposed in this country? In the life of Andrew Jackson do we find more good points to praise or bad things to condemn? These are but random questions to illustrate the great number of curious problems that spring up in history study. Arouse the interest of a pupil in one of these problems, and you have an excellent basis for a vigorous composition.

The lessons in history, nature study, geography, and literary biographies should constantly throw into notice very promising and attractive subjects for composition. These suggestions should serve as baits and enticements, disclosing, as it were, the meaty parts of these subjects, which there is not time in regular studies to penetrate. But they are just the suitable topics for collateral and home reading. When once opened up by the pupils' voluntary study, they prove far more rich and fruitful than the text-book work or usual class study, because, when treated by good authors, such books are deep, rich, and comprehensive. Enthusiasm for strong authors, for large and fresh topics, takes hold. If this kind of study does not pave the way to self-expression, it is difficult to see how anything can.

The teacher may also take an occasional period to show children, by examples, how to outline a paper. The selection of controlling points of view in proper succession requires thoughtful discussion. Even adults and experienced thinkers and writers have much difficulty with this choice and order of topics. We should not expect much of children at first. If properly suggested, every leading head implies an aim or problem and may serve as an awakener and an impulse to expression. Sometimes a child's paper may be worked over in class to bring out a controlling topical organization. Children do not distinguish between important and secondary or even trivial thoughts. They must learn how to get facts into proper perspective and relation.

There should have been an extensive and varied preparation for this outlining in the oral treatment of many historical, geographical, and nature-study topics in the middle grades. This is not the least important result of strong oral treatment and discussion of subjects in primary and intermediate grades. The teachers themselves must there cultivate a strong logical power for organizing and presenting subjects. There is also no better way to bring children into contact with this logical organiza-

tion than by setting it before their eyes while the teacher is presenting a science or a history lesson. No amount of theoretical discussion of the principles of logical order can hold a candle to this direct teaching by example and personality. Long before children are called upon to organize different topics for themselves, they should have witnessed and participated in the working out of such plans, innumerable, in the oral studies of the grades preceding the grammar school. Without this long preliminary training, to expect children at one bound to reach this difficult height may explain why in grammar grades they are so completely discouraged by the tasks set them.

Not only are the children, when properly taught, familiar with many examples of such well-articulated topics in lessons, but the outlines thus secured they have often made the basis of their own efforts at writing up, in good form, these lessons. It is a long hill to climb from the crude efforts of beginners to the clear and simple working out of logical outlines such as should be attained even in grammar grades. Steadily and quietly from grade to grade children should grow in power to bring out a strong nexus of leading topics in a story or composition. It is

a power gradually acquired by following the example of a strong and thoughtful teacher.

There is always more or less difficulty in grammar schools in getting neat and presentable paper work. Boys especially drop into thoughtless and indifferent habits. It is necessary to set up a good standard of careful, thoughtful work, neat papers, good margins, with bold, clear headings, marked indentations for paragraphs, and a general sightliness that makes the papers easy to read and understand. All tendencies to use poor or scrappy paper, to offer slovenly manuscripts, to scribble and throw off careless work, need to be firmly and quietly rebuked.

In these grades, as in the earlier ones, systematic and tactful correction of errors is needful. Professor Whitney says, "It is constant use and practice under never failing watch and correction that make good writers and speakers." ("Essentials of English Grammar.")

Mr. Chubb says in his "Teaching of English," p. 201: "Again let it be urged as the principle of prime importance, that not every mistake is to be corrected. We must first correct those mistakes with which we are systematically coping in our language work and those with which the children

have systematically grappled in their earlier work,—this on the supposition that the course of study provides for a progressive treatment of specific difficulties in each grade. . . . This puts them in the proper attitude toward the work of correction, and makes for that habit of self-correction which we must foster by every means at our command. One way of doing this is to take for class discussion certain typical mistakes running through a batch of papers; to give a few special exercises on this common error, and then hand round the papers of the batch for class-correction, expecting that the class will discuss the errors and correct them neatly in the margin as the teacher would do.”

By all the devices at the teacher's command children should be encouraged to take pride in their work, even in the formal and mechanical parts of it. But criticism is not a more valuable means than wise commendation. Anything that conduces to self-help—the use of dictionaries and reference books, originality in thought expression, the habit of recalling and applying earlier rules and principles—should be encouraged and rewarded. In all respects a higher standard of excellence can be set up in grammar schools than in lower grades. This

should be such, both in form and thought, as to demand strong and serious effort and command the entire respect of the children.

In order to establish common standards of good language work in all the studies it would be a wholesome thing if each teacher in geography, history, and science, at somewhat regular intervals, perhaps once a month, should require a carefully written paper in that branch, and should set up the same requirements for neat and accurate language as in the language lesson itself. This would require that each teacher be an expert in language training and well acquainted with the aims and standards set up in the language work proper. Such a plan would establish a more definite standard of achievement for all studies. In addition to other advantages such language tests would reveal to each teacher the weak points of his previous teaching more clearly than almost any other device.

REGULATIVES IN LANGUAGE

General

1. A vital experience based upon contact with the world or upon a strong interest in important

studies is the only thing that can give a child a compelling motive for language expression.

Even formal language exercises may find a motive in the spontaneous efforts of the children for expression.

2. The class-room standard of excellence in language must be high enough to require a strong effort. Constant watchfulness in the kindly correction of chief mistakes is more reasonable and effective than a perfect standard of excellence rigorously enforced.

4. The teachers in the grades of a school should work together by gathering data and determining the classes of common errors made, by holding conferences to establish common aims and plans of executing the whole course of study as laid out.

Primary Grades

1. Imitating the teacher's free movements in writing at the board, children should be encouraged to write simple words and sentences in a large, full hand.

2. As far as possible, the first board and seat work in language should be done under the immediate supervision of the teacher.

3. Even in the first grade the correct forms of pronouns, of simple verbs, and adjectives may be inculcated by kindly suggestion and practice.

4. The oral story and reproduction work afford numberless opportunities for assimilating into the child's speech a rich variety of idiomatic phrases.

5. Written work in early grades should be made the free outlet to natural expression and spontaneous activity and should lead up gradually to great ease in the later use of written language.

Intermediate Grades

1. The framework of speech and all the varied forms of sentence clause and phrase are most forcibly inculcated in the great thought studies that prepare for the language lessons proper.

2. Before writing, children should often be allowed to give a brief oral reproduction of the topics, with care as to correct language.

3. At recess or at some previous time, see that paper, pads, pencils, or pens and ink, are in readiness. Distribute these materials promptly according to some definite plan. Often much time is wasted.

4. Before writing, give a few plain directions what points are for special notice; remind the children of one or two common errors in recent lessons. Where necessary, call attention to difficult names or words involved in the lesson, writing them on the board, and pointing out the special difficulties.

5. While the children are writing, let the teacher pass quietly among them, quickly noting and correcting errors, and using the board to show correct forms. Only an active and wide-awake teacher can hold the pupils to a steady effort. Otherwise there is much carelessness and waste.

Carelessness and slovenliness in writing, spelling, and markings can be corrected in all cases if the teacher is vigorous and persistent.

6. For written board work similar care is necessary. Let the children use erasers sparingly, and if necessary only by special permission. They should obey orders promptly and together at board work and in class movements.

7. In the correction of board work children should be encouraged to acuteness in detecting their own and each other's errors. But prevent them from using time in trivial criticisms.

8. Even when the teacher must be occupied with instructing another class, it is often possible to secure excellent board or seat work in language. The language books are of much service in this kind of lesson.

9. In third and fourth grades, when first learning to build sentences into connected discourse, children are helped by blackboard exercises. Sentences furnished by the children from some familiar story or description may be discussed, revised, and written on the board; the proper use of connecting words can be shown and the breaking up of the thought into distinct sentences illustrated. Three or four sentences may be thus worked out and placed on the board by the teacher. After erasure the children may try to reproduce the ideas in writing.

10. A few at least of the papers handed in should be carefully corrected, and should afterward be discussed in class. The chief kinds of error should be plainly pointed out and the corrected forms illustrated on the board. Children pay little or no attention to corrected papers unless they are openly discussed in the class. Attention may be called to some of the best papers.

Occasionally careless papers should be rewritten after definite criticism.

11. Written language exercises should be based frequently upon lessons previously mastered in literature, geography, history, and science. The outline of such previous topics forms an excellent ground plan for connected written work.

12. Have a special aim for children in each lesson. It may be correct paragraphing, or capitalizing, or form and address of a letter, or correct usage in certain irregular verbs, or neatness and correctness in spelling and writing, or clear and connected narrative and description, or the treatment of homonyms, or quotations and their markings. But in emphasizing a special aim former injunctions should not be forgotten.

13. Each teacher is responsible for maintaining the standards set up in all the earlier grades and for keeping in mind those larger aims which stretch through the whole school course.

14. Success depends upon the mastery and steady application of a few requirements, upon constantly reviewing and keeping in mind the rules of work previously given.

Grammar Grades (Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth)

1. Formal grammar should not usurp the leadership in language work in grammar grades. Mastery and use of good English should remain the controlling aim.

2. The language studies should spring out of the rich thought of grammar school studies, and again find application in them.

3. In these grades it is necessary to provide in language lessons for a well-planned introduction of the children to the uses of the dictionary, to its system of markings, abbreviations, lists, and appendices; likewise the cyclopædias and other reference materials. If children are taught to use the dictionary and reference books with ease and intelligence, they acquire the power and the habit of self-help, a thing of the greatest value both now and for the future.

4. There should be worked out and illustrated in language lessons the simple rules for spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, the use of pronouns and irregular verbs, the agreement of subject and predicate, and the definition of the kinds of sentences. The results of these discus-

sions, in the form of simple rules, with attendant illustrations, should be kept in some permanent form by the children.

5. It is the custom in some schools to adopt some plan of preserving specimens of each child's work through the term or year. Composition books in which some exercises are written may be carefully used and preserved, or the teacher may file some of the papers for reference by parents and teachers.

6. Throughout intermediate and grammar grades the technical terms of grammar, as subject, predicate, adjective, verb, modifier, clause, preposition, tense, etc., should be used, when needed to explain the thought like other words of language, but without precise definition. In this manner the children may become acquainted with the chief elements of grammar before they are technically defined and classified.

7. The study of grammar in seventh and eighth grades, if it gathers up the fruitage of earlier language studies and usages, is a means of recalling, organizing, and rationalizing a large part of the strictly formal and conventional work of earlier years.

8. In grammar the sentence is the starting-point and goal. Applying the inductive method to the

sentence as the primary unit of thought, we naturally work out the chief classes of sentences, then the chief modes of structure and modification.

9. For older children a knowledge of a few leading principles of grammar enables them to give an intelligent reason for correct forms and usages. But the endless classifications, exceptions, and variations merely darken counsel with words, and are a source of needless vexation.

10. One mode of appealing to a natural interest in composition is found in encouraging children to write upon topics in which they are individually interested.

11. Composition should be self-expression, as manual training, drawing, and music often are. In its very nature composition demands freedom, originality, invention.

12. The teacher should be skilful in bringing to light interesting problems in history, geography, etc., which may stimulate children to fruitful reference studies in preparation for compositions.

13. Steadily and quietly under the leadership of a thoughtful teacher, children should acquire the ability to work out a composition based upon a strong and well-articulated series of leading topics.

14. Grammar school pupils, especially boys, are disposed to throw off careless and unsightly papers. They should be quietly and firmly held to neat and well-written paper work.

15. Systematic and tactful correction of errors is needful as in earlier years.

CHAPTER V

FUNCTION OF THE TEACHER IN LANGUAGE

To be a good teacher of language in the elementary schools is to satisfy a large variety of difficult standards of excellence. It suggests a wide range of ripened scholarship and of social cultivation in favorable surroundings.

A clear conception of the chief aim of language studies and of the necessary means of working it out must be assumed. This alone can save one from a large amount of wasted effort and of misdirection of children.

From the standpoint of the needs of children the teacher should possess a decided literary training and an active appreciation of many forms of good reading. The teacher's own taste and enthusiasm for writers cannot fail to awaken and stimulate children. In the use of literature as a basis for language work these qualities are of prime importance.

It is necessary for an instructor to be very sensi-

tive to bad English so that he cannot overlook such defects. His conscience should not become blunted by bad schoolroom practice, but he should perpetually react against ill-usage in speech. But allied to this should be an equal sensitiveness to the feelings of the children so that he will make corrections with tact. To combine these two things, to be alert to all mistakes, and not to allow them to pass unchallenged, and yet to be charitable and considerate toward the children, is a high ideal for the teacher's attainment.

The teacher must needs be very careful and correct in his own speech, clear and accurate in pronunciation and in the choice use of words, that is, in both full knowledge and in manifold, skilful execution. And yet he should be natural and easy, not stiff and pedantic. Children are very sensitive and stubborn about any show work. The teacher's treatment must be easy, natural, and forcible to be effective and to inspire imitation.

The breadth of equipment needful to a language teacher is easily seen by surveying (1) the breadth of the region from which he draws his language topics, in literature, history, nature study, geography, manual arts, etc. He must be able to carry

over the interest and spirit of these varied lessons into the language exercises and thus vitalize them; (2) the great variety of exercises involved in language lessons themselves, including composition, letter-writing, paraphrases, language drills on incorrect uses, grammar proper, spelling, writing, and dictionary work. There may be added to these the home life and experiences of the children, which the teacher must counteract and modify.

The difficulty of this work is still further seen in the fact that the teacher must be consistent, must apply in all his own constant use of language the rules and requirements set up, and what is still more difficult must insist upon a similar application in the work of pupils. This makes language one of the most directly practical of all studies. In every lesson we pass over from things learned to things used, and that not merely in the language lesson, but also in all other studies and exercises of the programme.

A broad view of the entire course of study through all the grades is a part of the teacher's equipment and that not in a superficial or theoretic way, but for the mastery and use of its resources in daily lessons. A teacher needs in this work an

unusual endowment of the power to interest children and to inspire them with confidence. Many children are extremely diffident in public recitation, others seem to be naturally defective on the language side. Patience and kindness combined with vigor and firmness are in great demand.

During the language recitation an unusual alertness and activity are required of the teacher, especially in written language at the blackboard or when children are working at their desks.

Much care should be taken in assigning the written lessons, warning against persistent errors, reviewing difficult words, calling to mind previous rules of spelling, punctuation, and correct usage. While the pupils are writing, they should be held to a prompt and steady attention to their tasks, trained to neatness and care in written work, corrected in their defects, and held to a high standard of performance.

The language studies require from the teacher a large amount of originality and power of adaptation, in properly correlating the chief studies with the language lessons and in making such modifications of the course of language work as are needed to suit the local needs. No course of study can

exactly define these lessons, especially in such a way as to correlate with all the other studies.

Perhaps the greatest of all difficulties is found in keeping up such a steady, consistent, and well-planned language development through the grades that old lessons are constantly reviewed and incorporated into practice, that correct usages once taught are persistently remembered and applied till firm habits of correct speech are established.

In a graded school it is advisable that teachers from all the grades should meet together from time to time to consult as to plans for a continuous improvement in language throughout all the grades, to make out lists of common errors, to find ways of mutual assistance, and to secure unity and harmony of purpose in all the language exercises.

CHAPTER VI

LANGUAGE BOOKS AND GRAMMARS

LANGUAGE books in various series are now extensively used as a means of conducting language exercises.

While they do not fully answer the purposes of a first-class plan of conducting language studies, they seem to be a necessity. It is desirable, therefore, that we should state the strong points and the weak points of language books. To the credit of the best of these series we may say:—

1. They make a liberal use of our best standard literature as centres for the grouping of language lessons. For example, such are the myths, "The Odyssey," "King Arthur," "Hiawatha," "Barefoot Boy," "The Children's Hour," "Rip Van Winkle," and many other longer and shorter poems or stories. These selections are such also as are regularly used in many schools as reading material. Nature study and history lessons, biographies of poets, artists, and statesmen are likewise used. These are very

worthy materials and have been carefully worked up in the best language books.

2. There are usually distributed through these books carefully prepared drills upon the correct use of pronouns, irregular verbs, and other forms commonly misused.

3. They also contain excellent exercises in letter-writing, copying of business forms, abbreviations, and various forms and rules of capitalizing and punctuation. These are indispensable in any plan of language work.

4. So far as spelling, punctuation, plural-formation, correct usage, and composition can be reduced to rule, these are clearly formulated for memorizing after they have been liberally illustrated and worked out inductively.

5. The method of treating these various topics is partly shown by illustrations and partly indicated by notes designed for the teacher's benefit.

6. The language books are of great benefit to inexperienced teachers (as very many are), and enable them to carry on such lessons on some definite and consistent plan, which without a book would be impossible.

7. The language book is used extensively by the

children for seat work, copying, filling blanks, studying lists, working out indicated exercises, and preparing lessons (rules and definitions) for recital.

8. In the best of these series a somewhat consistent and steady advance in language work with constant review of earlier lessons is provided for.

Some of the weak points in the language books may be stated as follows :—

1. Many lessons are included in these language books which are wholly unnecessary. They often deal with topics where there is no chance for a child to make mistakes, as for instance in the common use of adjectives and prepositions. As Mr. Chubb says, they “insult the child’s intelligence by trivial and uninteresting exercises.” They should not be mere busy work in writing words and phrases and other exercises which have no pronounced motive. It would not be an exaggeration to say that half the lessons in some books are of this hackneyed and colorless sort. In using such books they can be best omitted. We have too many important and urgent duties in a school to waste time upon trivial exercises.

2. At the same time lessons drawn from the other regular studies are lacking. History, geography,

and nature study should be well represented in the language work. To omit this vital connection between studies is to fall into dull routine and formal exercises. When we have such an abundance of these vital topics pressing for acceptance, it is foolish to select other trivial and unrelated matters. This difficulty can be overcome (1) by such a well-planned arrangement of topics in all studies as will encourage a proper correlation, and (2) by greater attention and thoughtfulness in teachers in efforts to correlate studies as at present arranged.

3. In a regular use of language books there is danger of too much seat and mechanical work. It is an easy way to keep children busy, and it has this merit in a crowded school. But unless the tasks require intelligence and care and are closely supervised, the results are poor and ineffective for improving language.

4. Many of the language books for the grades are infected with the desire to teach grammar and to develop grammatical principles. It would be wiser, we think, to let grammar shift for itself, and to throw the whole emphasis upon acquiring a fluent command of good English. In the seventh or eighth grade, or in both, it may be well to work out the few

leading ideas and principles of grammar. But some of the language books give a complete and almost exhaustive grammar for these grades. In our opinion this complete system is wholly uncalled for. This whole grammatical routine is an inheritance from Latin. It has no proper application to English, which is the opposite of Latin in its inflectional poverty. English cannot be mastered from the inflectional standpoint as can Latin, and it is questionable whether or not this is a good method even in Latin. But to impose this foreign and unnatural machinery upon modern English is irrational and blind.

English syntax can best be mastered for practical purposes by absorbing the modes of expression common in good writers and in conversation. As Mrs. Cooley says in the preface to her "Language Lessons," "Literature silently moulds the forms of thought." The mastery of an uninflected, but flexible language like English can only be gained by direct contact with its modes of utterance in literature and common speech.

5. The language books are sometimes not supplied with full lists of irregular verbs (with parts), of wrong expressions to be corrected, of homonyms, of

abbreviated and contracted forms such as the teacher may need for constant reference and review. The older children also could use these for reference. If the language book could be used more as a reference book, and as merely suggestive of topics, and be well supplied with compendia of correct forms for reference, it would serve better the purpose of many thoughtful teachers.

6. The chief general criticism of language books as a basis for the study of English is that they inevitably set the language apart, upon an independent footing. After all, language is vitalized only by its contact with other studies and life interests. To keep up this close connection with other studies and yet not lose the emphasis of drills upon special topics is the difficult thing.

Where schools are supplied with experienced teachers who can use language books with discretion, frequently substituting appropriate lessons from other studies for those given in the book, it is possible to make an excellent use of language manuals.

As yet there does not seem to be a strong consensus of opinion as to the place of grammar in the elementary school (that is, below the High School). We can only express a personal opinion.

We can afford to exclude grammar as such from the first six years of the common school. Such rules for spelling, plural formation, abbreviations, and correct usage as are worked out are merely devices for quicker mastery of difficulties.

The use of technical grammatical terms in these grades can be introduced, so far as teachers find it useful, without formal definition, as in other common words in reading, history, and geography. It is necessary to insist upon this informality as teachers drift so easily into a useless routine of definitions and keep it up all through the grades. The emphasis in all these early years should be upon the common and correct uses of language.

When in the seventh and eighth grades we begin to study grammar, it should be a very simple, broad survey of its leading classes and principles. We believe that in the seventh and eighth grades also the main emphasis should be not upon grammar, but upon composition, upon the study and application of special cases of correct usage, upon drills and exercises closely allied to the other studies. There will be a persistent review of all previous language lessons for the purpose of establishing right habits. Grammar, however, is able to throw considerable light upon

these usages, and the children in the eighth grade are old enough, we think, to begin to discover these rational relations between common practice and the laws of language.

CHAPTER VII

ILLUSTRATIVE LESSONS

The use of singulars and plurals with is and are and with other verbs

THERE are two very common words which give boys and girls much trouble to use correctly. They are *is* and *are*. Even grown folks often fail to use these words properly.

In sentences they are used with other words and the difficulty is in knowing with which words to use them.

We will therefore make a study of the words with which *is* and *are* may be properly used.

1. In the story of the "Lion and the Fox" I corrected several mistakes as follows:—

I know a farm-yard where there *are* two young lambs.

The wolf and the fox *are* running.

The dishes *are* broken.

Point out in these sentences where you made the mistake.

In a previous lesson we learned that a word may mean one or more than one, as book, books, horse, horses. Give other examples. Flower, flowers.

2. In the following sentences notice where *is* and *are* are used:—

The tree is small.	The trees are small.
The flower is sweet.	The flowers are sweet.
The bird is singing.	The birds are singing.
The girl is quiet.	The girls are quiet.

In our first reader you may hunt out on page 26 where *is* and *are* can be found.

The cap is pretty.	My papa is here.
The boy is running.	There are our men.
He is not in the house.	Where are the men?
There is the horse.	

Let us change *is* to *are* in the following sentences:—

The cap is pretty.	The caps ——— pretty.
The cart is here.	The carts ——— here.
He is not in.	They ——— not in.
There is the house.	There ——— the houses.
My papa is here.	Our papas ——— here.
There is our man.	There ——— our men.
Where is the boy?	Where ——— the boys?

At this point give a number of the simplest examples in which the children supply the corresponding form, *e.g.* —

The flower is sweet.	——?
The bird is singing.	——?
——?	The horses are drinking.
The man is resting.	——?
The tree is growing.	——?
——?	The leaves are growing.
The star is shining.	——?
——?	The girls are reading.
The river is flowing.	——?

(The temptation for the teacher at this juncture is to push the children prematurely to a *rule* to the effect that *is* is used with words that mean one, and *are* with words where more than one is meant. But in first or second grade, children will hardly discover this rule for themselves, and there is no advantage in forcing it upon them. The main thing is that the instinct for the correct form be established, because, as the children say, "It sounds better.")

In the third or fourth grade with more language experience and maturity the subject can be taken up again, the previous work reviewed, examples multiplied, and

a simple statement worked out that *are* is used with plurals and *is* with the singular, as follows:—

The field is green.	The fields are green.
The robin is hopping.	The robins are hopping.
The lady is singing.	The ladies are singing.

Give other examples, and let the children supply still others.

3. Examine these sentences and notice the words used with *is*, as field, robin, lady, and then those used with *are*, fields, robins, ladies, etc. What is the difference in these two lists?

4. This comparison leads to a conclusion, which may be simply stated by the children, and any reasonably accurate statement should be accepted, or modified where necessary.

“*Is* is used where one is meant and *are* where two or more are meant.”

5. There are several ways by which the truth of this conclusion can be tested and further applied till the various difficulties in use are overcome.

(a)

The cow ——— grazing.	The cows ——— ———.
The fly ——— crawling.	The flies ——— ———.
The horses ——— drinking.	The horse ——— ———.

(b) Let the children make up examples giving both forms; *e.g.* The tree is growing. The trees are growing.

(c) *There is* and *there are* in sentences.

There is danger near.

There are lions in the way.

(d) Hunting out the uses of *is* and *are* in the readers and other books.

(e) The correct use of these forms in compositions and all written work.

(f) The detection of violations of usage in oral work and out of school.

The use of *was* and *were* with singular and plural subjects can be illustrated and applied in a similar manner. Mistakes in the use of these are quite as common as with *is* and *are*; as, Mary and Anne was in the garden. You was told to return.

Has been and *have been* often give rise to a similar error; as, John and James has been to school.

Irregular Verbs

I have noticed that in your last written lesson several in the class made a wrong use of the words *broke* and *spoke*.

The corrected form of the sentences is as follows:—

The girl has spoken the truth.

The window-pane was not broken.

These are called irregular verbs, and we will consider their proper use.

1. You may first make sentences with the words *broke* and *spoke*.

“My father spoke to me.” “What has your father done?” “He has spoke to me.” “That sounds wrong. Can you correct it?” “My father has spoken to me.” (Yes.)

2. We will now observe more closely how these two words are used.

Here are two sticks; tell me what I do to them. “You break them.” (After breaking them.) “What did I do to them?” “You broke the sticks.” (Yes.)

“Tell us now what I have done.” “You have broken the sticks.” “We have now used the word *break* in three different forms. What are they?”

Break

broke

broken

I *break* the sticks.

I *broke* the sticks.

I have *broken* the sticks.

In the same way give sentences with the three forms of *speak*.

The king speaks, The king spoke, and The king has spoken.

3. You will notice that while these are called irregular verbs, they are very much alike.

Speak	spoke	spoken
Break	broke	broken

You may recall also that the mistakes in their use were alike ; namely, the use of *spoke* for *spoken*, and *broke* for *broken*, and it will be easier to remember them together.

4. By an examination of the mistakes you made in the use of these words you may tell which form you used incorrectly. You wrote "The stick was broke" and "The boy has spoke." What error do you need to avoid ?

Do not use *spoke* for *spoken* or *broke* for *broken*. Especially is this the case with the third form, with *has* and *have*.

5. The power to use these forms correctly may be tested by further examples.

(a) Fill the blanks. The horse was well — by his master. The boy said he had — the truth.

(b) Make sentences containing *broke, has spoken, break, had broken*.

(c) Further observation in the use of these words in the class room.

It will be of interest in the future not only to notice the correct use of these two words, but to be on the lookout to see if there are other words, of the same class, in which a similar error occurs; *e.g. steal*. Make three sentences.

The robber steals the watch.

The robber stole the watch.

The robber has stolen the watch.

Steal

stole

stolen

By observing words in the readers and in other books, and in oral speech, you may notice other irregular verbs of this class. A short list is here given for the benefit of the teacher:—

choose

chose

chosen

drive

drove

driven

forget

forgot

forgotten

freeze

froze

frozen

ride

rode

ridden

write

wrote

written

shake	shook	shaken
rise	rose	risen
forsake	forsook	forsaken
smite	smote	smitten
tread	trod	trodden

While these forms are not exactly alike, they are almost uniform, and the error made in their use is the same in all.

By keeping the children on the track of this group of words during a term or more till the correct usage becomes established, a frequent source of error is shut off.

Another group of irregular verbs that may be briefly studied in the same manner is the following : —

bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
think	thought	thought
teach	taught	taught
beseech	besought	besought
fight	fought	fought
seek	sought	sought

Not much time need be spent on this group as there is not much chance for error in its use.

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wholly isolated lesson, and if there was any connection with other similar forms, the children were often left to find it out for themselves, without guidance.

A plan similar to that worked out above has been applied to the irregularities of plural formations, to adjectives and adverbs irregularly formed, and in some degree to pronouns, as will be illustrated later.

It is by taking advantage of these short-cuts and economical groupings of difficulties that we may deliver the children to a considerable extent from that multitude of single items of knowledge, which threatens to overwhelm them.

Personal Pronouns

In the use of personal pronouns there are a few very common errors that should be corrected early in a child's life and the corrected phraseology worked into habit.

The early stories told by the teacher and reproduced by the children can do most to establish these habits in little children.

With primary and intermediate children rules are of no value, and the correct forms must be estab-

lished by attention to errors and frequent special exercises, somewhat as follows:—

Some of the most common words like *I*, *me*, *he*, *we*, *us*, *him*, and *our*, called pronouns, are often used wrongly. For example, one of the girls wished to say, "Mary and I were at the party," using *me* instead of *I*. One of the boys yesterday used *him* for *he* in this sentence, "He and John were fishing."

We will notice the correct usage of such words in sentences.

1. Give me some sentences using *I* or *me*. Edith says, "John and Mary and me were late at school." Instead of *me* use *I* and repeat the sentence. Other sentences are offered and approved or corrected by the teacher. The correct word emphasized by underlining.

2. I will now give a few examples.

John and *I* were studying.

It was Lizzie and *I* who took the fruit.

In such sentences *me* is often wrongly used instead of *I*.

The word *me*, however, is a correct word when used in the right place.

Father told John and *me* to bring in the wood. The books were bought for Elizabeth and *me*.

In these cases *I* is often wrongly used for *me*.

3. It will be interesting to see whether by comparing these sentences and by giving others, the children will discover that in the first case the error lies in using *me* for *I* and in the second case in using *I* for *me*. With younger children we cannot work out a rule for the use of *I* and *me* that will be of service to them.

As in the case of irregular verbs a feeling in favor of the correct form can be established by repetitions and usage. The grammatical explanation is of no use before the grammar grades.

4. Various applications in sentences should follow.

(a) The use of *I* as part of the subject in sentences; as, Henry and I are ready.

(b) In predicates. It was Mary and I.

(c) Sentences in the readers are pointed out where *I* and *me* are correctly used; perhaps copied.

(d) Sentences with blanks for *I* and *me* are given; as, The candy was for Jane and —.

In addition to the use of *I* and *me* a lesson should be given in similar wise upon the use of *he* and *him*; another upon *we* and *us*.

The correct use of *who* and *whom* is worked out by a similar series of illustrations.

An interesting and useful lesson for children is found also in changing pronouns from singular to plural forms, as follows :—

My desk is filled with my books.

Our desks are filled with our books.

The robin was feeding its young.

The robins were feeding their young.

I send my money to him.

We send our money to them.

No time should be wasted in drilling upon forms of expression in the use of pronouns or other words where mistakes are not likely to be made. No child will say "He told we," or "He told I to do it." Language lessons should be strictly limited to those words and expressions which demand drills so as to overcome positive faults, or what may easily become such.

Homonyms

Homonyms are regularly met with in all the grades, and frequent lessons are required to master them.

They naturally interest the children both for their spellings and meanings and for the funny mistakes sometimes made by using the wrong word.

The method of treatment is very simple.

In the first year we must meet such words as eye and I; son and sun; to, two, and too; meet and meat; fore and four. They may be treated somewhat as follows:—

In your reading lessons you found two words that were pronounced alike but had different meanings, and often a different spelling. What were they? Sun and son. We will notice how to use them correctly.

1. Put the following sentences on the board for the children to read:—

The sun rose clear this morning.

The clouds hid the sun.

The king's son was lost.

My son is coming home.

2. Let the children give the meaning of each word with its spelling.

3. Drills upon the use of the words may be made by having them printed on opposite sides of a card and by calling for sentences to illustrate the two forms. A word may be pronounced and the children asked to make sentences illustrating one or both uses. Written exercises based upon sentence-making are also helpful in fixing the forms.

In this way homonyms, as they are met with in the regular studies, can be handled two or three in a lesson, and occasionally a review drill upon the spellings and meanings of all such words previously studied may be appropriate.

It is not well to anticipate the use of these words by drills upon them before one or both of them appear in regular lessons.

A full list of the homonyms is given in the last chapter for the use of teachers.

The gradual mastery and use of abbreviations may be worked out in a similar way, and applied in written work.

With older children, exercises upon synonyms and antonyms furnish very interesting studies for a similar treatment, and the dictionary can be used to good advantage in tracing out words of similar or contrasted meanings.

For example,

1. Sullen, sour, ill-natured.
2. Happy, joyful, glad.

Introduction to a Composition

What story or book have you heard or read lately which seemed specially interesting?

If it is a book or printed story, recall the title.

Explain more fully what the whole story or book is about.

It may be *The King of the Golden River*, *Sindbad the Sailor*, *King Alfred and the Cakes*, *King Bruce and the Spider*, or some newspaper or magazine story or anecdote.

If you were rewriting the story from memory, could you note down first the chief parts or events.

Call for an oral statement from one of the pupils giving a few main headings for his book or story.

Work out on the board three or four headings as an example of an outline for the writing which is to follow, for example : *The Story of Siegfried*.

1. His childhood at home.
2. His apprenticeship with the smith and the forging of the sword.
3. His fight with the dragon.

Are there any names in your story which you may not know how to spell?

Would you like to read the story again before trying to write upon it?

Each of you may now make a brief outline of two or three main topics in his story which he can then

write about. As soon as your outline is ready I will examine it.

Pass about the class examining and revising these outlines and as soon as the outline is satisfactory, set each one at work upon his own written statement. A complete outline of a long story is not needed, but enough points for a short paper, perhaps only introducing the story.

It is usually advisable to warn the children against two or three prevailing faults which you have noticed in their recent written work, as carelessness in margins, broken and disconnected sentences, or grammatical errors, as in the use of adverbs.

The whole purpose of this preparatory work is to revive an interest in some familiar subject, and to point out the way so clearly that the children may enter upon their writing with zeal and confidence.

A Written Lesson from an Outline in History

If the story of the trip to California from Chicago in 1849 has been worked out in oral lessons in history and in oral reproductions, an outline of the whole should be at hand, about as follows: —

1. The discovery of gold in California. Map.

2. Preparations for the journey by the young men who start from Chicago in the spring of 1849.

3. Incidents on the trip from Chicago to Council Bluffs on the Missouri River.

4. The march across the plains. Hunting the buffalo, and affair with the Indians.

5. Crossing the Rocky Mountains at South Pass.

6. From the Green River to Salt Lake.

7. Journey across the desert and surprise by the Indians.

8. Journey on foot to California and crossing the Sierras.

9. Reaching the gold mines.

10. Great immigration to California in 1849 both overland and by sea.

11. Results of this influx of people into California.

In using this story and outline as the basis of composition only a part of it can be taken for a single lesson, as the first three topics, or the last three, or some other connected parts.

If it is required to write out the whole story as a complete unit of thought, several lessons should be given to its execution. If the first three topics are chosen, it is helpful to have the children give a short

oral statement of the chief parts in each topic so as to call them to mind preparatory to writing.

Any geographical names which may bother them may be called up and written on the board; as, California, Mississippi, Missouri, Council Bluffs. Any difficult and unusual words necessary to the story may also be placed on the board and the spelling noted; as, ammunition, medicine, ferry, navigable, preparation, baggage, etc.

Before setting the children at the task of writing, suggest some motive for excellence of work as a stimulus to effort; as, that you wish to have some of the papers read at the Friday afternoon exercises, or to compare with their previous papers on file, or that you wish to send some of the compositions home to the parents as a sample of the school work.

Having thus tried to set up a good standard and to awaken an impulse to reach it, a few cautions may be given how to avoid some of their recent errors in composition; *e.g.*:—

(a) Let each of the three topics form a distinct paragraph, thus breaking up the lesson into main parts. /

(b) Do not make long and difficult sentences, but let each one be simple and clear. This point may be

illustrated from their last preceding papers, from which a long and somewhat confused sentence is put on the board and broken up into two or more simple statements.

(c) After one full writing the geographical names may be abbreviated, as, Cal., Miss., etc.

(d) Be careful of spelling and use the dictionary in doubtful cases, or ask the teacher, if he is not otherwise busy.

It is not well to give many cautions in a lesson as they cannot be remembered.

Wherever it is possible, it is desirable that the teacher give attention to the pupils while they are engaged in writing these papers. In most cases it is not possible because the teacher is engaged with another class. But occasionally the teacher may find time to supervise the writing itself. Where this is possible he can encourage helpless pupils, check up careless scribblers, and enforce the special points to which he has just called attention. In the midst of the production of compositions there are excellent opportunities for showing children how to use the dictionary and thus learn to help themselves.

When the papers are handed in, a good share if not all should be carefully examined and judged by

the teacher. If this is too much work for the teacher, the compositions might be shortened or reduced in number and frequency. It is not possible to get good composition work without careful correction and timely discussion and revision of the work criticised. It is difficult to see how a mere repetition of careless exercises can lead to improvement.

The chief points to be enforced in criticising papers are those which were emphasized as cautions just before the writing began ; *e.g.* the paragraphing, the confused sentence construction, the spelling, and abbreviations. Other corrections are made, but they are incidental. The blackboard should be used freely both by teacher and pupils in amending the sentences, words, or paragraphs which are under discussion.

On the whole it seems better not to rewrite a composition, though cases doubtless arise where that is necessary, as with extremely negligent children. Wherever motive can be put behind the work which causes the children themselves to be anxious to rewrite and secure a better form, complete revision is the best thing. If children are writing a letter, for instance, which they are anxious to get into

better form before sending, or if the essay is one that the pupils wish to improve for a public reading, their own impulse will lead them to the labor of revision. To stimulate this kind of motive is one of the great things in teaching.

Introduction to the Use of the Dictionary

In fifth and sixth grades the dictionary should come into easy use by the children. A few language lessons carefully devoted to teaching its use are necessary.

A good opening for this sort of training is offered in introducing children to a new piece of literature in the reading lessons.

In the fifth grade, for example, we frequently use Macaulay's "Horatius at the Bridge" for reading lessons. But in the first part of the ballad the great number of unfamiliar names and words interferes with the reading. At this point the language lesson might step in and relieve the reading by giving a few exercises in dictionary work upon these difficulties.

As a basis for such an exercise the following list of words from the first ten or twelve stanzas is given :—

Lars Porsena	trysting
Clusium	array
Tarquin	amain
Etruscan	hamlet
Apennine	sentinels
Volaterræ	descry
Sardinia	mart
Pisæ	triremes
Clitumnus	diadem
Arretium	stags
Luna	champ
Umbro	fowler
Volsinian	must
Populonia	sires
Massilia	mere

In teaching the use of the dictionary specific and well-planned exercises are necessary.

Many children do not know the letters of the alphabet in order, nor how to use them, when learned, in tracing out words in the dictionary.

Where is the word *trysting* (placed on the board by the teacher) found in the dictionary? Why at the last end of the book?

When *t* is found in the dictionary, is *trysting* at

the beginning or toward the end of words beginning with *t*? Not being familiar with dictionaries children know little or nothing of these things. When they find the word *trysting*, it has no marks of pronunciation. It stands — *trysting*. Just above it is the word *tryst*, and just after this (*trist*) in parenthesis. What does this mean? But the boy cannot interpret *trist*. It is necessary to explain the diacritical marking. (It is often necessary to give a series of lessons on the phonetic sounds — vowels, consonants, and diphthongs — and their markings in the dictionary. This should come early and in connection with dictionary exercises.)

The definition in this case is “an appointment or tryst.” (Not very intelligible.) But below is “trysting day,” an arranged day of meeting. So at last we have the pronunciation and the meaning.

Every step of this process of looking for the meaning and pronunciation is difficult and confusing to beginners. But under careful guidance the children will soon learn to work independently.

In looking for proper names it is necessary to show the children how to use the list of classical and historical names in the appendix to the dictionary.

Other words should be traced out in a similar way, the children working under the direction of the teacher.

If each child has a small dictionary, the work can progress more rapidly.

The blackboard must be used freely to illustrate markings, syllables, and accent. In the phonetic exercises single and concert drills are valuable in establishing correct pronunciations.

As in the study of Horatius so in other literary products used in reading, there will be ample opportunity to use the dictionary. In Irving's "Rip Van Winkle" and "Sleepy Hollow," for example, the style is at first difficult because of unusual words and somewhat stilted phraseology. Here the dictionary must be resorted to and the children should be systematically trained to its use.

In composition work generally, children should be steadily encouraged in the use of the dictionary, as it is the best means of training them to self-help and to correct habits in spelling and pronunciation. As much can be done in this way for spelling as in spelling exercises.

Derivatives

In connection with the history of language and closely related to the uses of the dictionary a series of lessons on the derivation of words should be distributed through the grammar grades. They are easily interesting to children because they offer such rich and not difficult avenues of investigation. Prefixes and suffixes and the various turns and modifications of a root-word give a whole family of curious meanings.

Fortunately the simplest common Anglo-Saxon and Latin root-words are those most attractive for study, as head, headship, behead, headless, heady, headway, headstrong, headache, headlight, headquarters, headstone, headsman, headgear.

In introducing such lessons, one or two examples can first be worked out by way of illustration, and later the class members can be set to work on different root-words to gather up the varied derivations.

For example, let us gather up the derivatives of *port*.

1. What can you mention? Port, portable, porter, import, importation, exportation, report, deport, deportment, portal (given by class).

How are these words formed from the original *port*? By prefixing and adding syllables (prefixes and suffixes). Do you know the root-word and from what language it comes?

2. The word is of Latin origin. By examining the dictionary you will find the Latin *porta*, a gate, and the Latin *portare*, meaning, to carry. In a Latin dictionary you will find that the original root is *por*; *porta* is an entrance way through which goods are borne.

In addition to the words given above you may find by further thought or by consulting the dictionary such words as the following: portage, port-hole, portly, portliness, reimport, reëxport, besides certain geographical names, as the Porte (Constantinople), Oporto, Porto Rico, Port Said, Portland, Newport.

3. Examine the above words to see how many parts of speech are found among them; as, port (a noun), import (a verb), portly (an adjective), the Porte (a proper noun), port-hole (a compound noun).

Notice also the different kinds of prefixes and suffixes; as, *im*, *reim*, *de*, *ex* (both simple and compound); *-ness*, *-ly*, *-age*, *-ation*, *-able*, etc. (suffixes).

4. Similar root-words can be taken up by the different children, and the derivative words gathered and classified.

For example, such words as scribe, fit, horse, man, force, see, fact, habit, make, work, run, light, trust, iron, talk, etc.

Such study as the above illustrates and works out clearly the sources and history of language; it teaches children to discriminate shades and variations in meaning, every word is an interesting field of investigation; the dictionary and other reference books are used and made familiar; and many important facts of grammar and correct usage are suggested.

Analysis of Sentences

We have often spoken of sentences, and it is worth while to find out what we mean by a sentence and what goes to the make-up of a sentence.

1. You may give me some examples of sentences. (As the children furnish such expressions as the following, let the teacher write them on the board.) Our rose-bush is growing fast. The sun is clouded. The type-writer is broken. The dan-

delions in the meadow. The horses drinking at the trough. The robin sings in the maple.

Are these sentences? Why? How can you tell a sentence?

2. Two of the above expressions are not sentences. Can you pick them out? A sentence must express a complete thought, but two of the above are incomplete. They do not make any positive statement about anything. Some child may answer, "I think it is 'The dandelions in the meadow.'" Why do you object to this? It does not tell anything about dandelions. Does it not describe them as "in the meadow"? Yes. But you are right, this is no statement. We could as well say, "The meadow dandelions," which is merely the name of something. How can you change "The dandelions in the meadow" into a sentence? Tell something about the dandelions. "The dandelions grow in the meadow." Yes, that makes the sentence complete. What other expression given above is not a complete sentence?

If the class fails to detect it, let them examine the following, "The horses drinking at the well."

This is not a sentence. Make it into one. A child says, "The horses are drinking at the well."

That is right. Why is it a sentence now? Because it tells something about the horses.

Now in the five sentences we will pick out the main ideas or elements. In the first, "Our rose-bush is growing fast," what are the two chief ideas?

The first is expressed by *rose-bush*, the second by *is growing*. Yes, and the words *our* and *fast* are merely explanatory of the main ideas.

In the sentence, "The horses are drinking at the trough," there seem to be three important things, (1) The horses, (2) are drinking, (3) at the trough. Leave off the third part — "The horses are drinking." Is this a complete sentence? Yes. The third part, *at the trough*, merely explains the rest of the sentence.

Analyze the last sentence, "The robin sings in the maple," in the same way.

Examine the following sentences from "Grandfather's Chair": —

The boat's crew proceeded to the reef of rocks.

They gazed down into the water.

Captain Phipps was troubled.

A stream of silver dollars gushed out upon the deck of the vessel.

See if each of the above is a complete sentence and tell why.

3. By comparing all the sentences given above we may find that they are all alike in certain respects. Each sentence has two principal parts, and without one of these chief parts we fail to have a complete sentence.

4. You may remember that we have sometimes called these two chief parts of a sentence by a familiar name. What are they? (Subject and predicate.) By an examination of the sentences again we may detect just what we mean by a subject and predicate.

Go through the sentences again and show which is the subject and which the predicate in each case.

What is the relation of the subject to the predicate in each case? You notice at least that together they make a complete thought, but separately they do not.

What is the business of the predicate in each case as related to the subject? It tells something about the subject.

The subject, on the other hand, as rose-bush, sun, type-writer, dandelions, horses, and robin, is that about which the predicate tells something.

On the basis of these examples we may form some sort of definition of a sentence; namely, "The sentence consists of a subject and predicate." And joined together for what purpose? "To express a complete thought." Or we may state it thus. A sentence is the expression of a complete thought by means of a subject and predicate. In these sentences we found other words besides subject and predicate, and these we will discuss at a future time.

5. In the following sentences you may pick out the subjects and predicates:—

Longfellow wrote "Hiawatha." The civil war was long and destructive. The early explorers were hardy men.

Under a spreading chestnut tree,
The village smithy stands.

In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth.

To give further application to this simple idea of the sentence choose some simple story and pick out the subjects and predicates of the simpler statements, not at first the complex and compound sentences.

With growing experience inverted sentences can

be more easily untangled. Complex and compound sentences should be given a separate treatment. Complete lessons on the modifiers of subject and predicate may also be worked out on a plan similar to that above.

Personal Pronouns

We have had occasion to speak of the use of pronouns for the sake of convenience, and have noticed that pronouns are commonly substituted for nouns. There is one group of pronouns which we will now examine more closely ; namely, the *personal pronouns*.

1. In the following sentences pick out the pronouns so far as you can : But the prince would not go home to his father without his brothers, and said, " Dear dwarf, can you tell me where my two brothers are that we may find them ? They went out before I did in search of the water of life, and have not come back to our hut."

" They are in prison between the mountains," said the dwarf ; " I have made them stay there because they were so proud." Then the prince begged till the dwarf set them free ; but he said to the prince, " Beware of your brothers, for they have bad hearts."

(The above sentences can be placed upon the board and scrutinized by the class.) Each of you may write on a slip of paper such pronouns as you find.

2. These lists are then handed in, and the teacher says, "I will read you, now, one of the lists, as follows—his, where, they, them, before, I, back, he. Several of these are correctly named pronouns, but three of them are not pronouns. Which three?" (Where, before, and back.)

All the pronouns in the passage are then brought together after some questioning and arranged by the teacher, in three groups, as follows:—

I		he (she)	(it)
my	you (thou)	his (her)	(its)
me	your (thine)	him	
we (our)	(thee)	they (their)	
(us)	(ye)	them	

(Those in parenthesis are worked in later, as indicated below.)

By an examination of these words we may be able to say why they are called *personal* pronouns. By examining the three lists do you detect the

reason? They are personal because they usually refer to persons. In the passage given what persons are referred to by the pronouns? The prince and his brothers and the dwarf.

3. You will see by the grouping that is made above that these pronouns fall into three groups. Examine these groups and find out what to call each group. They are sometimes called pronouns of the first, second, and third person. Why so?

4. Can you define each group? The first group evidently refers to persons who are speaking of themselves (I and me), the second, those to whom we are speaking, and the others, to a third party mentioned.

The grammars usually say that pronouns of the first person represent the *speaker*, of the second person, the *one spoken to*, and the third person the *one spoken of*.

You may notice perhaps that none of these groups is complete. What pronoun of the first person can you add to the list? (Us.) There are two other pronouns of the second person, not, however, used often, as in the sentences, "Thou art welcome," and "Blessed are ye when men shall revile you." (Thou and thine and ye.)

In the third group, there are several to be added, as in the sentence, "She told her mother that the moon had lost its brightness and the stars their beauty." (She, her, its, their.)

By adding *him* and *thee* we have the list of personal pronouns complete.

5. To form a full acquaintance with personal pronouns, a variety of applications is necessary. Take, for example, any good piece of dialogue, in the fairy stories, in "Cricket on the Hearth," or in "The Wonder Book," and pronouns are numerous.

The following short passage from "Pilgrim's Progress" will serve as illustration:—

World.—How now, good fellow, whither away after this burdened manner?

Christian.—A burdened manner indeed, as ever I think poor creature had. And whereas you ask me *Whither away*, I tell you, Sir, I am going to yonder wicket gate before me; for there, as I am informed, I shall be put into a way to be rid of my heavy burden.

World.—Hast thou a wife and children?

Christian.—Yes, but I am so laden with this burden, that I cannot take that pleasure in them as formerly. Methinks I am as if I had none.

World. — Wilt thou hearken unto me, if I give thee counsel?

Christian. — If it be good, I will; for I stand in need of good counsel.

A somewhat similar mode of treatment can be applied to other groups of pronouns, also to groups of nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, etc.

CHAPTER VIII

COURSE OF STUDY

First Grade

1. EXERCISES preliminary to the formal language work.

(a) Stories from good literature, presented orally and reproduced by the children; *e.g.* such stories as The Three Bears, The Ugly Duckling, The Discontented Pine Tree.

(b) Nature-study observations of plants and flowers, squirrels, butterflies, bumblebees. Work in the garden or excursions to the fields and woods. All these, after they have become familiar in nature study, may be used for short language lessons.

2. Drawing pictures and writing words and short sentences to illustrate stories such as The Old Woman and the Pig, Cinderella, Hiawatha, The Apple Tree Branch.

3. Descriptions of good pictures by the children. A picture often suggests a story, or a scene in a story. By suggestion the teacher may get good

responses. In De Garmo's "Language Lessons," Book I, are many illustrations.

4. Copying of words and very simple sentences chosen by the teacher from the reading or other lessons. Let the children's writing at the board be large and free. Very simple sentences current in the other lessons may be dictated by the teacher.

5. Exercises in the use of *a* and *an* with nouns: an apple, an orange, an eagle, a tree, a man, etc. (Not much time needed.)

6. Use of common verbs to agree with singular and plural nouns as subjects; as, *is* and *are*, *was* and *were*; e.g. The four musicians were singing. Note also the correct use of *there is* and *there are* in sentences; as, There are dangers by the way. In this kind of work very brief exercises are needed, but constant watchfulness to secure correct usage in all lessons. (See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

7. The use of correct forms of personal pronouns as subjects and objects in sentences; e.g. Mary and I were playing. Philip and I sat together. Tell John and me the story. No reasons are assigned, but the correct form given and required till use is settled. (See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

8. Correct and avoid the use of *ain't*, *have got*, and *had ought*. In correcting, use the proper forms and keep them before the children; *e.g.* The fir tree isn't large. You ought not to go. Ought they not to speak quietly?

9. Teach the proper use and spelling of the following homonyms:—

hear — here

to — too — two

write — right

know — no

eye — I

there — their

hour — our

be — bee

son — sun

Various devices may be used in drilling upon these words. Use cards with the words and call for meanings or sentences. (See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

10. *Abbreviations.*

Use Mr., Mrs., Dr., and St. Write on the board short phrases and sentences with these abbreviations; as, Mr. and Mrs. Ball.

11. Use of the period in sentences and abbreviations; also the question mark, the possessive form with apostrophe, and capitals.

Notice frequently the use of these marks in

the book and in board work as a preparation for use.

12. *Spelling.*

Have frequent exercises in the written spelling of words occurring in the reading, nature study, and other lessons. Select at first the most common words. For seat work copy such lists.

13. *Writing.*

(a) Observation of teacher's written work at the board and frequent exercises in this free-hand board work largely in imitation of the teacher.

(b) Copying of words and sentences placed on the board by the teacher.

(c) Copying short exercises from the first reader.

(d) Copying memorized selections and short passages from memory.

Apply spelling and punctuation to all these written exercises.

While these are called formal language lessons, they should be as informal as may be.

Children should be encouraged to freedom and confidence in speaking and writing. The necessary corrections and drills should be kept within the channels of spontaneous activity. As Mr. O. T. Bright says: "Children in the first grade cannot study.

They want something to do." The blackboard and the seat work should be the outlet for this natural impulse.

Second Grade

1. Use of *this* and *that*, *these* and *those*; as, *this* kind of apples, *that* sort of men; *these* kinds of cloth, *those* sorts of people.

Correct and avoid such expressions as, these kind, those sort, them kind, and them boys.

2. Correct Use of Adverbs.

Slowly, quickly, well; *e.g.* He is working slowly. John acts quickly. The boys are writing well.

Show the proper use of corresponding adjectives: slow work, good writing, quick action.

Correct such expressions as, He is running slow. Mary wrote good. John speaks rapid.

3. The use of correct forms of pronouns after *is* and *was*; also after verbs and prepositions; *e.g.* It is *I*. The candy is for Mary and *me*. It was *she* that rode past. It was *they* who laughed. It is *we* that are to blame.

Correct such errors as the following: He told John and I to return. It was Mary and me. It was you who was talking.

4. Practise upon the following homonyms :—

meat — meet	aunt — ant	ate — eight
buy — by	flower — flour	grate — great
knew — new	sea — see	sent — cent
steal — steel	tail — tale	

Bring into these exercises any other homonyms that appear in the regular studies of the grade.

Notice the widely different meanings and make simple sentences showing their proper use ; as, The grate was broken. Great trouble came to him.

5. Use of *Comparatives* and *Superlatives* in adjectives ; as, taller and tallest. I have the larger book (of the two). Edith is the tallest girl in school. Avoid the use of the superlative in comparison of two persons or things.

6. Correct use of

Learn and *teach* ; as, Teach me the lesson.

Don't and *doesn't* ; as, John doesn't know his lesson.

Off and *of* ; as, Clear off the top of the table.

Shall and *will* in simple cases ; as, Shall I come ? not, Will I come ?

Avoid also the wrong use of *can* ; as, Can I do it ? Can we play with the dolls ?

7. *Abbreviations.*

Review those of first grade and add the following: ct., doz. Abbreviations of names of days of the week and months of the year. Apply these abbreviations to other studies and add to the list others used in any school work of this grade.

8. *Use of Capital Letters.*

In beginning sentences and in proper names.

The first word in lines of poetry and in direct quotations.

In dates, days of the week, months, and in addresses and titles.

Let each child learn to write his own name and address.

In all the written work of the school apply the correct usage of capitals and abbreviations.

9. Copy carefully memorized verses and proverbs with attention to capitals, punctuation, and spelling.

10. *Use of Quotation Marks.*

Give examples of quotations and their markings, using familiar passages in literature, poems, etc.

Use of the comma in series and in addresses.

Notice in the readers used the different marks of punctuation; as, question mark, period, comma, and quotation marks.

Apply these to written work at board and on paper.

11. Make a study of the following irregular verbs:—

break	broke	broken
begin	began	begun
come	came	come
drink	drank	drunk <i>or</i> drunken
do	did	done
sing	sang, sung	sung
eat	ate	eaten
go	went	gone
see	saw	seen
sit	sat	sat
tear	tore	torn
teach	taught	taught
write	wrote	written
speak	spoke	spoken
lie	lay	lain

The above are given as some of the most common and involve many of the more frequent errors.

In practising the correct use of irregular verbs we may aim directly at these errors.

One of the most common faults is in confusing

and interchanging the past tense and past participle.

Interesting and lively exercises may be devised for illustrating the uses of such verbs. First ask the question. What did you drink? I drank a glass of water. What have you done with the milk? I have drunk it.

Devise various questions for bringing out the different forms; thus: Use *have* or *had* with the verb *break*. Use the word *break* with *yesterday* or *to-morrow*. (See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

12. *Written Language.*

Parts of the Robinson Crusoe or Hiawatha stories or nature-study lessons furnish good thought-material for sentence work at the board.

New and difficult words from any of the lessons may be placed on the board and made the basis of written sentence work.

In written language work there are many devices for reviewing previous lessons.

(a) Sentences are asked for containing the forms of irregular verbs or pronouns, adjectives and adverbs.

(b) Such sentences as the following may be changed throughout to the plural form: The boy that is riding his wheel has lost his way.

(c) Sentences with blanks are to be filled out and copied; as, The boy is — than his sister and — than his brother.

(d) Short stories may be written from memory after a series of sentences containing the story has been placed on the board, examined, and erased.

(e) Dictation exercises given by the teacher may test many forms of words, punctuation, spelling, and abbreviations.

In all the work of second grade the sentences used should be short and simple, the exercises brief and varied. Let the children use the crayon or pencil freely with a large movement.

Third Grade

I. Irregular Verbs.

choose	chose	chosen
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
get	got	gotten or got
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
ring	rang, rung	rung
steal	stole	stolen

take	took	taken
wear	wore	worn
throw	threw	thrown
burst	burst (burst)	burst (burst)
dig	dug (dug)	dug (dug)
sing	sang, sung	sung
stay	staid, stayed	staid, stayed
win	won	won

Make sentences to illustrate the different forms.
Use these verbs also with adverbs.

2. Illustrate the use of the apostrophe with the possessive singular and plural; *e.g.* boys' hats. Examine the readers for examples of the use of the apostrophe with possessives.

Dictate written phrases and sentences in the use of the possessive; as, John's knife, Mary's doll, Charles' books.

3. *Abbreviations.*

Capt., Col., P.M., A.M., Rev., P.O., P.S., isn't, hasn't, don't, and other contractions.

Use these abbreviations and contractions in sentences and apply them to written work.

Review the abbreviations of first and second grade.

4. *Writing Letters.*

Introduce the children to letter-writing to friends.

Direct them to the preparation of letters to be sent by mail.

Short, but neat, and accurate in punctuation, capitals, etc.

Work out a full letter at the board, selecting topics that interest children.

5. *Short Written Exercises* (on the blackboard) drawn

(a) from nature-study lessons and excursions ;

(b) from home geography descriptions ;

(c) from stories in literature ; as, the Greek and Norse myths.

Apply previous lessons on capitals, punctuation, and spelling.

6. Study the following homonyms : —

rode — road — rowed

pair — pear — pare

sail — sale

pail — pale

weak — week

berry — bury

whole — hole

won — one

hair — hare

bough — bow

forth — fourth

idle — idol

heal — heel

him — hymn

A few of the drills in working with homonyms may be suggested as follows : —

(a) Give out the words orally and call for sentences illustrating the different uses.

(b) Pronounce the words and call for spelling and explanation of meanings.

(c) Write the words upon cards and let the children interpret them at sight.

(d) Recall curious mistakes in the use of homonyms.

7. *Short Written Papers.*

First work out with the children a series of simple sentences from a familiar story or nature lesson. Place these sentences on the board and examine the spelling, capitals, and punctuation.

In the first efforts of children such sentences may be copied from the board. Later they may be reproduced in substance from memory.

8. Correct the following common errors in speech :—

(a) The relative and interrogative pronouns *who* and *whom*; as, Whom did you meet? instead of, Who did you meet? Whom did you call for? etc.

(b) *Each* and *every one*, *either* and *neither*. These words are often wrongly used with a plural verb; as, every one of the boys are present. Neither of those flowers are beautiful.

(c) Review the use of *may* and *can*, *shall* and *will*.

(d) Review the personal pronouns *I* and *me*, *we* and *us* with verbs.

9. The correct use of predicate adjectives instead of adverbs after seem, appear, smell, taste, and feel; as, The apple tastes good (not well). I feel bad (not badly). The fruit smells sweet (not sweetly).

In correcting all these common errors of speech it is advantageous to keep a list of the correct phrases and sentences on the blackboard before the eyes of the children for a period of time, with occasional drills or references to them for the sake of emphasis.

10. *Spelling.*

Make out lists of new or difficult words for spelling exercises taken from the stories, reading, nature study, and geography.

(a) Such lists, placed on the board, may be used for pronunciation and copying till they are familiar.

(b) Pronounce such words for oral spelling.

(c) Dictate such words singly or in sentences for written work.

11. Write familiar poems from memory. Apply the previous lessons on punctuation. Before writing study the punctuation, capitals, and spelling of such passages in the original.

12. *Simple Contractions.*

I'll, I'm, isn't, aren't, hasn't, can't, you'll, it's, I've, there's, and others.

E.g. I'll go if it isn't too late.

Give many illustrations till the forms are known.

Dictate sentences for writing, involving these forms.

Examine in dialogue and dramatic stories the frequent use of these abbreviated forms.

Fourth Grade

1. *Composition.*

Careful work in simple composing can be undertaken in this grade.

(a) The outlines previously made out in the oral treatment of history stories and geography topics and nature study supply a good basis for short compositions. Two or three topics of an outline may be worked out in distinct paragraphs with proper attention to margins, indentation, capitals, and punctuation. (See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

(b) Greater freedom in making outlines and in composing can be allowed in writing descriptions of personal experiences of children upon excursions and picnics.

After looking over such papers the teacher should use the blackboard freely in revising errors of sentence construction, choice of words, paragraphing, spelling, and markings.

For further suggestions of method see chapter of Illustrative Lessons.

2. (a) The correct uses of *who*, *which*, and *that* as relative pronouns.

E.g. The lady whom we met is sick. The boy that (or who) was here is very bright. The sheep that (or which) was in the pasture is lost.

(b) The proper use of *in* and *into* in sentences ; *e.g.* Tom fell into the pond. The boat was in the water.

(c) Illustrate the use of the possessive singular and plural of nouns ; as, The dog's ears, Charles' hat.

3. *Homonyms.*

ball — bawl	choir — quire	gait — gate
hall — haul	peace — piece	seen — scene
false — faults	flea — flee	heard — herd
oar — o'er — ore	waist — waste	

Study the meanings of these words and illustrate their use in sentences.

Give a series of lessons in the spelling and meanings of homonyms, including those studied in the earlier grades.

4. Develop from numerous examples the chief rules for forming the plurals of nouns.

(a) Cases in which *s* is added; as, horse — horses; cat — cats; bonnet — bonnets.

(b) Adding *es*; as, box — boxes; grass — grasses; church — churches.

(c) Changing *f* to *v* and adding *es*; as, leaf — leaves; half — halves.

As a basis for deriving these rules make long lists of illustrations of each group from familiar words.

In applying the rules, (a) dictate words and call for both forms; (b) change all the words in a given sentence or paragraph to the corresponding singular or plural.

5. Abbreviations as follows: etc., sec., min., hr., in., ft., qt., pt., gal., bbl., U.S., D.C., R.R., Dr., Amt.

Add to this list the abbreviations that spring up in any of the studies and a review of those in previous grades.

6. Avoid the following incorrect usages, *like* for

as; *e.g.*, He plays as Henry does. *Without* for *unless*; *e.g.*, Do not go unless your father permits (not, without your father permits). *Good ways* or *long ways* for *long way*; *e.g.* George is a long way from home (not, long ways). *Some* for *somewhat*; *e.g.* He is somewhat deaf (not, some deaf).

7. Irregular Verbs.

see	saw	seen
come	came	come
do	did	done
go	went	gone
take	took	taken
sit	sat	sat
set	set	set
lay	laid	laid
shake	shook	shaken

Review the uses of *there is* and *there are*, *there was* and *there were*.

8. Punctuation.

Observe the use of various punctuation marks in the readers, arithmetics, and other books.

Notice the uses of the exclamation point, quotation marks, the comma in series, addresses, and in setting off clauses and phrases.

Apply these punctuation marks in written work.

9. *Contractions.*

O'clock, 'tis, it's, I've, ne'er, he's, shouldn't, couldn't, shan't, won't, wouldn't, can't, what's, that's.

10. Introduction to the use of the *Dictionary*.

Mastery of the alphabet in order.

How to trace up words in the dictionary.

The markings of vowels, diphthongs, and consonants in the dictionary.

Syllabification and accent.

The interpretation of definitions to fit the context.

Systematic lessons are needed,

(a) in the correct pronunciation of vowel sounds;

(b) on the diacritical markings in the dictionary;

(c) upon well-selected words for dictionary study.

(See chapter of Illustrative Lessons.)

11. *Synonyms and Antonyms*; e.g. large — big — great; little — small — diminutive; angry — vexed — indignant; liberty — slavery or bondage; proud — humble; strong — weak.

Frame sentences showing these similar and contrasted meanings.

12. Correction of common errors heard outside of

the school; *e.g. ain't, seen for saw, done for did, you was for you were, she don't for she doesn't, as lives for as lief.*

Keep the correct forms before the eyes and in the hearing of pupils as much as possible.

13. *Spelling* of new and difficult words gathered from the lessons in history, geography, reading, nature study, and arithmetic.

Use the lists of words derived from these studies for dictionary work and for spelling.

14. Make a free but informal use of the terms *verb, noun*, and names of other parts of speech in etymology; also *subject, predicate*, and *modifier* without formal definition, as occasion naturally arises in all studies.

Fifth Grade

Preliminaries to Language in Fifth Grade

Efficient use of language depends chiefly upon the constant attention given to correct speech and written work in the other studies.

In fifth grade there should be special care to apply all the forms of correct language taught in the previous grades.

So important is this application that advanced

language work could better be neglected than this faithful review overlooked.

As a means of directing attention to this review and application of previous lessons, the first two or three months of fifth grade might well be given to such review drills.

This insistence upon correct usage applies also to the varied forms of oral work in fifth grade, such as the oral narratives in history, the reproductions of geography, the reports on nature study, and to all other forms of recitation work as well as to any written papers and examinations. In all these, perpetual attention to correct forms is necessary.

1. *Composition.*

At this age the compositions should begin to show some degree of skill in the full, accurate, and apt expression of thought. The topics upon which children are asked to write should be selected with a view to the knowledge and preferences of the children. Biography, travel, and lively story appeal to many, while nature study, machines, and inventions may interest others.

The full outlines furnished by the history stories and geographical types furnish an excellent basis for a part of the compositions.

For example of this see chapter of Illustrative Lessons.

Exercise care in spelling, capitals, and punctuation.

2. Spelling exercises may be derived from

(a) mistakes in the composition papers ;

(b) difficult and new words in reading and other lessons ;

(c) reviews of earlier lessons on homonyms, contractions, abbreviations, and rules for plurals.

3. The *paraphrasing* of familiar stories and poems from memory provides a lively kind of board or seat work in which faults in language and composition can be quickly corrected. Give freedom of expression. Criticise the work in class and compare with the original in thought and language.

4. *Business Letters and Social Forms.*

Standard forms of letters should be mastered.

Letters of invitation and declination as usually given in the language books.

Bills and receipts, inspection of customary bills and business papers. Write out the forms.

In all these forms require accuracy and neatness.

5. Inspection of punctuation as found in the readers and other text-books.

Develop and illustrate the chief rules for the use of capitals, commas, apostrophes, and quotation marks.

Give dictation exercises to test the use of these markings.

Punctuate poems and prose passages taken from authors and then compare with the original.

6. *Irregular Verbs.*

Review the full table of irregular verbs and their parts.

Make a special study of the harder verbs; as, *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*; *to be*, *do*, *fly*, *get*; and the auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*, *may* and *can*.

Make many sentences to illustrate and confirm these various uses.

7. *Homonyms and Synonyms.*

cellar — seller	chews — choose	colonel — kernel
creak — creek	hose — hoes	in — inn
lesson — lessen	mail — male	night — knight
pedal — peddle	plain — plane	alter — altar
all — awl	aloud — allowed	been — bin
fir — fur	soul — sole	tacks — tax

Give various dictation and drill exercises for the spelling, meaning, and use of these words.

8. *Abbreviations.*

Acct., Hon., Gov., Pres., Co., Jr., Sr., M.D., Prof.,
Supt., Maj., Sen., Rep., Messrs.

Review earlier abbreviations.

Review contractions and illustrate their use in sentences and in conversation.

9. Correction of errors heard out of school.

These to be reported and discussed in class.

Opportunity to review earlier lessons.

10. *Use of the Dictionary.*

Regular exercises in dictionary interpretations.

Words for these lessons derived from other studies ;
as, reading, geography, history, and science.

Review of dictionary markings for pronunciation and accent.

Drills upon vowel and consonant sounds.

Lists of prefixes and suffixes and their meaning.

Root-words and derived words illustrated.

Children, after a few of these lessons, should begin to use small dictionaries as reference for self-help in reading and other studies.

Sixth Grade

1. *Independent Use of the Dictionary.*

Regular use of the dictionary with assignments

for dictionary study in reading and language lessons.
How to use the dictionary appendix.

Careful review of phonics and drill in the correct use of sounds. Diacritical marks.

Syllabification and accent of words.

Teach the use of cyclopædias and other reference books. Introducing children to an easy and intelligent use of reference books is one of the most important points in cultivating proper habits of study. Even the supplementary readers in history, geography, and nature study will be used more wisely after thoughtful and suggestive pointers by the teacher.

Even a small library of reference books may be made of great value to children, if they are taught to use them properly.

2. *Spelling.*

The problem of spelling should be attacked from several sides and systematically.

(a) Lists of new and difficult words should be carefully selected from the usual lessons in other studies and used for oral and written drills.

(b) In composition work of all kinds the dictionary should be used for doubtful words.

(c) The simple rules for spelling classes of words should be developed from full lists of examples.

Formation of the plurals of nouns.

Words ending in *f*, *l*, and *s*.

Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable.

Words ending in *e*.

3. *Derivatives* of words used in reading, arithmetic, and other studies.

Common root-words and their derivatives grouped ; as, come, become, income, coming, comely ; thought, thoughtful, thoughtless, bethought ; see, seeing, unseen, foresee, seer, see-saw.

Notice prefixes and suffixes in forming derivatives.

4. *Composition*.

Instruction in outlining subjects.

Illustrate with new topics from general lessons and subjects of special interest, which are outlined before the class.

Criticise also in class outlines made by the children.

Base compositions on

(a) reference topics in geography and history ;

(b) reports on the lives of authors whose works are studied in the reading lessons ;

(c) debates in which arguments are presented on both sides ;

(*d*) topics in which individuals show a strong interest; as in science, music, mechanics, etc.

5. *Letters and Correspondence* based upon

(*a*) descriptions of travel and historical scenes;

(*b*) visits to places of interest; as, museums, parks, churches, public buildings;

(*c*) home letters to parents and others;

(*d*) business letters, telegrams, advertisements, etc.

6. Correction of prevailing incorrect speech.

Avoid common absurdities and extravagances; as, *how* for *what*, *if* for *whether*, and the frequent use of *awful*, *dreadful*, *perfectly charming*, *immense*.

Discuss freely the use of slang. Like swearing it shows overemphasis and weak thought.

7. Use of abbreviations.

C.O.D., D.D., Atty., N.B., via, vol., inst., Cr., viz.

Review earlier abbreviations.

Study list of abbreviations in the appendix of the dictionary.

8. Homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms. Make lists from the regular studies as they arise.

Use the dictionary freely in tracing up synonyms and antonyms.

9. Drill exercises in punctuation.

(*a*) Gather up the chief rules for punctuation.

(b) Copying from memory of songs, poems, hymns, and proverbs with proper punctuation.

(c) Dictation exercises as tests of spelling, capitals, and markings.

Seventh Grade

1. *Analysis of Sentences.*

The sentence as the unit of thought.

Chief elements of thought in the sentence.

Subject, predicate, and modifiers.

Many illustrations examined.

Adjective and adverbial modifiers.

Extension of adjectives and adverbs into phrases and clauses, modifying nouns or verbs.

The chief kinds of simple sentence.

The complex sentence and its elements.

The compound sentence and its parts.

Free use of the parts of speech without formal definition.

2. History of the English language in its chief periods of development; the different sources of its words. Chief peoples who have contributed to it, with illustrations of their share in forming it; as, Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Danes, Normans, Latins.

Difference between English and Latin or German in the inflections.

3. Peculiarities of English spelling. .

Spelling of Latin words; Greek words.

Silent letters in English.

Classes of peculiar spellings in English. Drills on special lists; as in *ei* and *ie*, and *ough*.

The reform of English spelling and reasons for it; as in *programme*, *thorough*, *through*.

4. *Compositions* based on

(a) lives of authors; as, Irving, Whittier, Lowell, Macaulay, Bryant, Scott, Hawthorne; the stories of the origin of important prose works and poems; as, "Hiawatha," "Evangeline," "Snow-Bound," the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," "Siegfried," "King Arthur";

(b) topics on the history of English;

(c) general lessons discussed for the whole school;

(d) imaginative stories in imitation of stories read;

(e) side-lights on history and geography;

(f) special science reports.

5. *Spelling reviews*.

Review and extension of the rules of spelling.

Review tables of homonyms.

Peculiar groups of English spellings.

Words derived from other studies and readings.

6. *Phonics*.

A careful drill in phonic sounds is needed in the grammar school, (a) single and concert drill on vowels, diphthongs, and consonants with many illustrations; (b) drills on lists of words often mispronounced.

7. Use of larger dictionaries and reference books.

The unabridged dictionary should be employed for reference in grammar grades, including the appendix. The cyclopædias also of biography and of general reference should be made familiar by use. Children should learn how to cull important points from longer articles.

Supplementary reference books in science, geography, literature and history, biography and travel, should be used, discussed, and referred to by the teacher for supplementary and home reading. The language lessons should make children intelligent and interested in the use of reference materials. Much of this must be done also in the other studies.

8. Review of *common errors* in spoken English.

Discussion of classes of errors in earlier lessons.

Illustration of the various ways in which gram-

mar aids correct speech; as in the use of irregular verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs.

Common errors heard out of school discussed in class.

The meaning of vulgarisms and slang and their origin. Reasonable discussion of slang and why it should be avoided. While some slang is expressive, the ordinary use of it shows weakness in thought and deficient power of expression.

9. Continue drill upon the pronunciation of lists of words commonly mispronounced; as, *apparatus, data*.

10. *Rhetorical figures and terms.*

Incidental attention to the rhetorical figures used by good writers; as, simile and metaphor.

Continuation of memory quotations.

Eighth Grade

1. *Etymology.*

The parts of speech are familiar by name and use as explained in the discussion and illustration of the parts of the sentence—subject, predicate, modifiers, and connective words.

(a) The eight parts of speech are now taken up as objects of study, illustrated, defined, and grouped in their chief classes.

The inflections and conjugations are also worked out in their chief forms.

Many of the lesser traditional classifications and inflections are of little value and should be omitted.

(*b*) The service of the chief classes, rules, and inflections for determining correct usage should be fully exploited in this fuller discussion of pronouns, verbs, and other parts of speech.

2. *Composition.*

A complete treatment of composition in the last year of the grammar school should make letter-writing and written expression of thought in all subjects fluent and correct.

(*a*) Study of examples of the chief forms of composition by good writers ; as, narration, description, and argument, illustrated by the writings of Scott, Hawthorne, Webster, Dickens, and others.

(*b*) Paraphrasing of poems and stories from memory.

(*c*) Review of earlier studies in outlining the chief units of thought in an essay.

(*d*) Simplicity and clearness in writing.

(*e*) Figures of speech and their value as illustrated by good authors.

(f) The use of sources and reference books in preparing compositions.

(g) Errors to be avoided in composition, confusion of topics, ambiguity, stilted language, extravagance, foreign phrases.

(h) Original compositions upon self-chosen topics.

3. *Reviews and summaries.*

(a) Study of synonyms and homonyms.

Review previous lists and add, such as: bail—bale; barren—baron; breach—breech; cannon—canon; canvas—canvass; cede—seed; chaste—chased; chord—cord; claws—clause; cousin—cozen; kill—kiln; maze—maize; martial—marshal; mean—mien.

Review the complete list of homonyms with meanings and spellings.

(b) Irregular verbs.

Review the list of irregular verbs and the violations of correct usage.

(c) Pronouns and their use.

(d) Review rules for spelling and punctuation.

4. Study and analysis of English classics to discover the plan, outline of thought, choice of words, peculiar points of style, use of figures, and sentence construction.

5. Fuller study of the biographies of leading English and American writers and reports upon them. Acquaintance with the best books dealing with authors. The leading periods of American literature with their groups of authors.

CHAPTER IX

REFERENCE MATERIALS

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

Words in the list which are marked with an *r* have also the regular forms.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
abide	abode	abode
am <i>or</i> be	was	been
awake, <i>r</i>	awoke	awaked
bear	bore	borne <i>or</i> born
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began	begun
bend, <i>r</i>	bent	bent
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
bring	brought	brought
build, <i>r</i>	built	built
burn, <i>r</i>	burnt	burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (adhere), <i>r</i> <i>clave</i>		cleaved
cleave (split)	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
cling	clung	clung
clothe, <i>r</i>	clad	clad
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow, <i>r</i>	crew	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare * (venture), <i>r</i> <i>durst</i>		dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig, <i>r</i>	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream, <i>r</i>	dreamt	dreamt

* *Dare*, to *challenge*, is regular.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
drink	drank	drank, drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell, <i>r</i>	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate, eat	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
freight, <i>r</i>	freighted	fraught
get	got	got, <i>gotten</i>
gild, <i>r</i>	gilt	gilt
gird, <i>r</i>	girt	girt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave, <i>r</i>	graved	graven
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang, <i>r</i>	hung	hung

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, hove	heaved
hew, <i>r</i>	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel, <i>r</i>	knelt	knelt
knit, <i>r</i>	knit	knit
know	knew	known
lade, <i>r</i>	laded	laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leaned (leant)	leaned (leant)
leap, <i>r</i>	leapt	leapt
learn, <i>r</i>	learnt	learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (incline)	lay	lain
light (shine, illuminate), <i>r</i>	lit	lit

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
light (descend), <i>r</i>	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow, <i>r</i>	mowed	mown
need	needed, need	needed
pay	paid	paid
pen (enclose)	penned (pent)	penned (pent)
plead, <i>r</i>	plead (pro- nounced plēd)	plead
put	put	put
quit, <i>r</i>	quit	quit
read	read	read
reave, <i>r</i>	reft	reft
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive, <i>r</i>	rived	riven
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
seek	sought	sought
seethe	seethed (sod)	seethed (sodden)
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew, <i>r</i>	sewed	sewn
shape	shaped	shaped (shapen)
shave	shaved	shaved (shaven)
shear, <i>r</i>	shore	shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone (shined)	shone (shined)
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shrink	shrunk, shrank	shrunk, shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang, sung	sung
sink	sunk, sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide, <i>r</i>	slid	slidden, slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
slit, <i>r</i>	slit	slit
smell, <i>r</i>	smelt	smelt
smite	smote	smitten
sow (scatter), <i>r</i>	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell, <i>r</i>	spelt	spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill, <i>r</i>	spilt	spilt
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand,	stood	stood
stave, <i>r</i>	stove	stove
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stride	strode, strid	stridden, strid
strike	struck	struck, <i>stricken</i>
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow, <i>r</i>	strowed	strown

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
swear	swore	sworn
sweat, <i>r</i>	sweat	sweat
sweep	swept	swept
swell, <i>r</i>	swelled	swollen
swim	swam, swum	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive, <i>r</i>	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven, wove
weep	wept	wept
wet, <i>r</i>	wet	wet
whet, <i>r</i>	whet	whetted
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
work, <i>r</i>	wrought	wrought
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written, writ

HOMONYMS

The following lists of homonyms and abbreviations are taken from Chancellor's Graded City Speller (The Macmillan Co.).

Exactly pronounced, these associated words are not in every instance true homonyms.

air	ere	bough	bow
e'er	heir	brake	break
aisle	isle	buy	by
all	awl	caster	castor
altar	alter	cause	caws
arc	ark	ceiling	sealing
ate	eight	cell	sell
bail	bale	cellar	seller
ball	bawl	cite	site
bare	bear	sight	
base	bass	scent	sent
be	bee	cent	
beach	beech	choir	quire
beat	beet	climb	clime
beau	bow	coarse	course
been	bin	creak	creek
bell	belle	currant	current
berth	birth	dear	deer
blew	blue	dew	due
boar	bore	dye	die
board	bored	earn	urn

eye		him	hymn
ay	aye	hoes	hose
eyelet	islet	hole	whole
fair	fare	hour	our
false	faults	in	inn
feat	feet	jam	jamb
fir	fur	knead	need
flea	flee	knew	new
flew	flue	know	no
flour	flower	lain	lane
fore	four	lead	led
foul	fowl	lessen	lesson
gait	gate	loan	lone
grate	great	lute	loot
grease	Greece	made	maid
groan	grown	mail	male
guessed	guest	main	mane
hair	hare	mantel	mantle
hall	haul	meat	mete
hart	heart	meet	
heal	heel	medal	meddle
hear	here	might	mite
heard	herd	missed	mist
hew	hue	moan	mown
higher	hire	mourn	morn

muscle	mussel	rite	write
knot	not	rain	rein
nay	neigh	reign	
none	nun	rice	rise
oar	ore	ring	wring
o'er		reck	wreck
ode	owed	rye	wry
one	won	road	rowed
pail	pale	rode	
pain	pane	rough	ruff
pause	paws	rose	rows
pair	pear	sail	sale
pare		scene	seen
peace	piece	sea	see
peal	peel	seam	seem
plain	plane	sew	sow
plait	platé	so	
pore	pour	shone	shown
pray	prey	sighs	size
pride	pried	scull	skull
profit	prophet	slay	sleigh
quarts	quartz	soar	sore
read	reed	sole	soul
read	red	some	sum
right	wrig	son	sun

stare	stair	vail	veil
steak	stake	vale	
steel	steal	vain	vein
straight	strait	vane	
tail	tale	wade	weighed
the	thee	waist	waste
their	there	wait	weight
throne	thrown	way	weigh
threw	through	weak	week
to	two	wood	would
too		wooded	

ABBREVIATIONS

A.I.	first class	asso.	association
abbr.	abbreviation	asst.	assistant
acct.	account	bal.	balance
A.D.	In the year of	B.C.	before Christ
	our Lord	B.L.	bill of lading
agt.	agent	chap., ch.	chapter
A.B.	Bachelor of Arts	coll.	collect
A.M.	Master of Arts,	Co.	company, county
	before noon	C.O.D.	cash on delivery
Amer.	America	Col.	Colonel
amt.	amount	Cr.	credit, creditor
anon.	anonymous	do.	ditto, the same

D.C.	District of Columbia	Co- inv. Jr.	invoice Junior
D.D.	Doctor of Divinity	lat. Lt.,Lieut.	latitude Lieutenant
Dr.	Doctor, debtor	debt, LL.D. long.	Doctor of Laws longitude
Ed.	Editor, edition	M.	noon, thousand
e.g.	for example	Maj.	Major
Esq.	Esquire	M.C.	Member of Congress
et. al.	and others		
etc., &c.	and so forth	M.D.	Doctor of Medicine
F. Fahr.	Fahrenheit		
f.o.b.	free on board	mdse.	merchandise
G.A.R.	Grand Army of the Republic	mem. Messrs.	memorandum gentlemen
Gen.	General	mfg.	manufacturing
Gov.	Governor	Nat.	National
hdkf.	handkerchief	N.B.	take notice
hist.	history	N.E.	northeast,
Hon.	Honorable		New England
i.e.	that is	N.W.	northwest
ins.	insurance	O.K.	all right
inst.	instant, present month	payt. Ph.D.	payment Doctor of Philosophy
int.	interest		

pl.	plural	Ry.	Railway
P.M.	afternoon,	Sec.	Secretary
	Postmaster	Sen.	Senator
P.O.	Post-Office	sing.	singular
pop.	population	Soc.	Society
pr. ct.	per cent	Sr.	Senior
Pres.	President	S.S.	Sunday School
Prin.	Principal	Supt.	Superintendent
Prof.	Professor	S.W.	southwest
prox.	next month	Treas.	Treasurer
P.S.	postscript	ult.	last month
ques.	question	V.P.	Vice-President
recd.	received	vol.	volume
recpt.	receipt	W.C.T.U.	Women's Chris-
Rep.	Representative		tian Temperance Union
R.R.	Railroad	wt.	weight
Rev.	Reverend	Y.M.C.A.	Young Men's
Rt. Rev.	Right Reverend		Christian Association

Jan.	Jan' u a ry	July	Ju ly'
Feb.	Feb' ru a ry	Aug.	Au' gust
Mar.	March	Sept.	Sep tem'ber
Apr.	A' pril	Oct.	Oc to'ber
May	May	Nov.	No vem'ber
June	June	Dec.	De cem'ber

Sun.	Sun'day	gi.	gill	ans.	an'swer
Mon.	Mon'day	pt.	pint	fig.	fig'ure
Tues.	Tues'day	qt.	quart	A.M.	morn'ing
Wed.	Wednes'day	gal.	gal'lon	P.M.	aft'er noon
Thurs.	Thurs'day	pk.	peck	St.	street
Fri.	Fri'day	bu.	bush'el	Ave.	av'e nue
Sat.	Sat'ur day	bbl.	barrel	No.	num'ber
sec.	sec'ond	lb.	pound	Mr.	Mis'ter
min.	min'ute	oz.	ounce	Mrs.	Mis'tress
hr.	hour	doz.	doz'en	("Missis")	
da.	day	in.	inch	SIGNS	
wk.	week	ft.	feet	\$	dol'lar
mo.	month	yd.	yard	¢	cent
yr.	year	mi.	mile	#	num'ber

CONTRACTIONS

e'er,	ever	aren't,	are not
ne'er,	never	wasn't,	was not
I'm,	I am	weren't,	were not
I've,	I have	hasn't,	has not
I'll,	I will	haven't,	have not
I'd,	I would	hadn't,	had not
I'd,	I had	don't,	do not
isn't,	is not	doesn't,	does not

didn't,	did not	can't,	cannot
we're,	we are	'tis,	it is
he's,	he is	he's,	he is
there's,	there is	you're,	you are
what's,	what is	you'll,	you will
won't,	will not	it's,	it is
wouldn't,	would not	e'en,	even
shouldn't,	should not	let's,	let us
sha'n't,	shall not	that's,	that is
I'll,	I shall	daren't,	dare not

USE OF CAPITALS

Begin with a capital :—

1. The first word of a sentence and of a line of poetry.

2. Every proper noun and proper adjective; as, *Boston, English.*

3. Every name or title of the Deity.

4. Names of the months of the year and days of the week, but not the seasons unless personified.

5. The chief words in the title of a book, poem, or essay; as, *The King of the Golden River.*

6. Titles of respect; as, *His Excellency the Governor of Illinois.*

7. The first word in a direct quotation, except when it is only a part of a sentence.

8. The pronoun *I* and the interjections *O* and *Oh*.

RULES FOR SPELLING

1. Final silent *e* is omitted before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *ride*, *riding*. But in the endings *ce* and *ge*, the *e* is retained before suffixes beginning with *a*, *o*, and *u*; as, *service*, *serviceable*.

There are a few exceptions; as, *dyeing*, *shoeing*, *singeing*.

2. Final *e* is usually retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *white*, *whiteness*. There are a few exceptions; as, *wholly*, *truly*, and *judgment*.

3. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *running*, *forgetting*.

4. Words ending in a double consonant usually retain it on adding a suffix; as, *fell*, *felling*.

5. Words ending in a double consonant usually retain it in adding a prefix; as, *farewell*.

6. Final *y* preceded by a consonant is usually changed to *i* before all suffixes except those beginning with *i*; as, *happy*, *happiness*, *carry*, *carrying*.

7. Final *y* preceded by a vowel is usually retained before a suffix ; as, *journey, journeying*.

PUNCTUATION MARKS

1. The period is used after declarative and imperative sentences, and after abbreviations.

2. The comma is used : —

(a) After an address.

(b) Before and after a direct quotation.

(c) To separate parts of a series of words or phrases.

(d) To set off appositives and some other modifiers.

(e) To break up a sentence into parts.

3. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of compound sentences where conjunctions are omitted, and to separate coördinate clauses which are themselves broken up by commas.

4. The colon is used where a list or enumeration is to follow, and in long compound and complex sentences whose lesser parts are separated by semicolons.

5. Quotation marks are used to enclose every direct quotation.

6. The apostrophe is to show the omission of

letters in contractions, to mark the possessive of nouns and the plurals of letters and figures.

BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

A few of the best books for teachers who wish to study the problem of language teaching are given as follows:—

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